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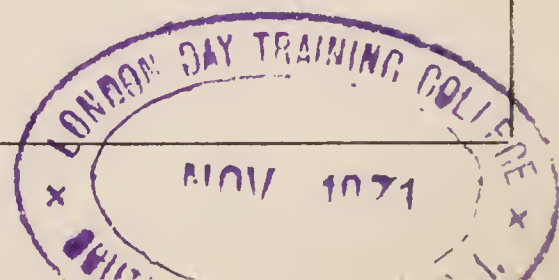
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Pupil (13 years)

State Secondary School for Boys No. 9, Cracow
A CHRISTMAS PUPPET SHOW

THE OUTLOOK TOWER

OUR recent visit to Poland was a fresh illustration of the value of travel when the intent is to study and to make friends. In commemoration of the tenth anniversary of independence a National Exhibition had been organised at Poznan to show the results attained during the last ten years, and to show that, despite all obstacles, the Poles have never ceased to contribute to the culture of civilisation.

The Polish Government invited a number of foreign visitors to see the Exhibition and to spend two weeks in their country. Most of these were representatives of governments, or of universities, or were specialists in finance, industry, social welfare, education and other realms. We were invited as representatives of the new education movement, and were so much impressed by all we saw that we have devoted this number to a review of educational progress in Poland.

Poland in the Past

Situated in Central Europe, on the great trade routes between East and West, with no natural frontiers to protect her, Poland was forced during her ten centuries of independent existence to maintain a continual struggle in self-defence.

The most tragic period in Polish history was the period from 1795 until 1918 when the country was partitioned between Germany, Austria and Russia, and the nation separated and living under subjection. We accept Poland on the map of Europe as a matter of course, vaguely knowing she has emerged triumphant, but the tragedy, the blackness and the torture from which she has emerged are little realised. Yet for well over a century of torture the Polish people never lost their spirit. Within the privacy of their own walls, in prison and in exile, they kept grim hold of their language, their culture, and their national pride. The older

generation taught the younger and the flame of Polish culture smouldered ready for the moment when it might once more send its light out over Europe. The patience, the endurance, the self-sacrifice of the Polish women during this century of oppression is beyond description. Perhaps the honour in which they are held in Poland to-day is an outward sign of a nation's gratitude.

Among the living Polish heroes none is held in greater veneration than Field-Marshal Josef Pilsudski, who all his life preached the principle of armed resistance to invaders. After his experiences of the Russian revolution in 1905, and in spite of the extremely difficult political and financial situation, he set to work to create the nucleus of an army. On the outbreak of the Great War he entered the field against Russia, the most dangerous of Poland's partitioners. When the Russian Revolution broke out he turned his attention to the other two powers—Germany and Austria. His uncompromising opposition led to his internment in the barrack cells at Warsaw. Armistice Day 1918 was the signal for the scattered forces of Polish troops to return. Field-Marshal Pilsudski then assumed supreme authority, and as Commissioner-in-Chief, and chief of state, laid the foundations of the future structure of Poland.*

Poland in 1919

By the Treaty of Versailles, Poland reappeared on the map of Europe as an independent nation. The material devastations must have filled the Polish people with despair. Their castles had been converted into barracks and stables, and evacuated in a semi-ruined state, robbed of their treasures; means of communication by road, rail and telephone were

**Pilsudski*, by Rom Landau, will be published early in January (Jarrolds).

generally non-existent; there was no machinery of government; in the Russian area there were no factories, no farms, no schools; the people were starving and were ravaged by disease. The wanton damage done by invading armies has not been fully repaired. In one of the oldest castles we saw the wooden pillars that had been left in place of marble columns, valuable tapestries slit to hold officers' swords, defaced frescoes and broken statues.

The Exhibition

The National Exhibition at Poznan was opened by the President of the Republic last May and remained open until October. It was outstandingly artistic. Wide roadways bordered with flowers led from one section to another, and architecture was simple in outline and harmoniously blended in colour. Clever use was made of statistical information to give visual pictures of Poland's economic, political, educational and industrial progress. Many of these were in the form of concrete columns by the roadways—the comparative heights and colours giving the clue. These objective and simple statistics were a definite means of instruction. This was one of the main objects of the Exhibition which, in terms of the new education, was a project, a centre of interest.

There was a regular network of railway accommodation and cheap-entrance facilities. About 12,500 children visited the Exhibition each week, remaining three days in Poznan and following definite plans of study.

A glance into the different sections showed the nation's ability to recover itself and to become self-supporting. The agricultural section, for instance, was equipped with modern farm machinery and experimental centres, and the industrial section showed every commodity of food and clothing, electrical labour-saving devices, hygienic installations, and modern furniture.

Of all the sections, that of the Govern-

ment was the most artistically equipped and spacious, and represented its various departments. It was, of course, impossible to see the whole in the space of three days, and most of our time was spent in the department of education. In the administrative part of this were wall-sized maps with electrically-lit coloured discs and arrows to show the distribution of schools, the development of the Board of Central Control, the varying nationalities in Poland and their distribution, density of child population, and a variety of other statistical facts. Colour blocks showed the number of children in different classes in different types of schools and where they overlapped. Other diagrams showed the budget figures: 10/- per head per annum is the average cost of a child's education to the state. It must be borne in mind that cost of living in Poland is not high. The budget of the Ministry of Education ranks second in the whole budget of the state. During the period 1923 to 1928 it amounted to 14.16 per cent of the total budget. In the teaching as well as in the other professions men and women receive equal pay, while the father gets an allowance for each child. No woman is debarred entrance to a profession on account of marriage.

There were halls containing interesting work from schools, and sections showing new school furniture, domestic science, medical and gymnastic equipment, and school libraries. But to us the main interest in the whole of the education exhibition was the fact that the Government itself was giving a lead, was sparing no effort, and that it has sent officials and teachers to other lands to learn and to study. The Ministry has vision and is in touch with progressive methods and modern educational thought, though it is handicapped by lack of buildings and trained teachers. A great deal of what we saw at the Exhibition is not yet to be seen in all schools, but the authorities themselves are thinking in terms of change and progress.

The Country's Charm

After the Exhibition we made a delightful tour through the country. We went south to Cracow and spent three days in that most fascinating of old capitals. Dating back to its supposed foundation by Krakus in 700 A.D., it is a city in which one still breathes the atmosphere of by-gone centuries. The market square is a fitting frame for the colourful garments of the peasants who cluster round their fruit and vegetable stalls on market day. The Jagellonian library with its million volumes and rare and valuable manuscripts is as it was hundreds of years ago, and its cloistered courtyard with the statue of Copernicus, native of Jorun, is a masterpiece of ancient architecture. We went out to Wieliczka and explored the oldest salt-mines in Europe and marvelled at the chapels and ballrooms in the bowels of the earth. Another day we spent motoring in the Tatra mountains. Zakopane in the Polish Tyrol is a wonderful centre for those who would escape the tourist-ridden haunts of the rest of Europe. To the charm of mountain scenery, forest slopes and Alpine flowers is added the fascination of Carpathian peasant life. The costumes of the mountaineers, and especially the embroidered trousers and sheepskin jackets of the men, are a real joy. So, too, are the clean houses, highly decorated furniture and quaint markets.

After Cracow we went north again to Warsaw where we visited all types of schools. The capital is just now in process of renovation. Everywhere streets are under repair; bridges, stations and government buildings are being constructed, for under foreign occupation no building of any kind was allowed to be erected without special permission. The old quarter bordering the Vistula is still mediæval, and the square with its tall, brightly decorated houses escaped the ravages of war.

We were taken to Lowicz, a country town in the plains of Poland, where the peasants still wear full national costume. The sombreness of the church was made gay by the peasant women in their many-

hued skirts, embroidered bodices and shawls; as they crowded out into the sunlight they made a riot of vivid colours. In that particular district the national costume is regarded as a symbol of the peasant's newly regained freedom as a landowner.

Main Trends of Education

Lack of time meant whirlwind visits to most of the schools, and we were not able to see as much as we should have liked. In its broad sense education in Poland is democratic, and there is little class distinction. One of the aims of the Ministry of Education is to make the elementary and secondary schools dovetail into each other so that the elementary is preparatory for those who go on to the secondary. Education has been made compulsory from the age of 7 to 14. Corporal punishment is illegal and is regarded as unpsychological as well as out of harmony with the aspirations of the Polish people.

An interesting law states that all elementary schools must have an active committee of parents. These committees have done a great deal to improve the school by practical help, and also to raise the level of culture. It is only when the different types of citizens send their children to the elementary schools that the level can be raised, and it is because of this high level that Polish parents of all classes are satisfied to send their children to this type of school. We were very much impressed by the clean, smart appearance and good manners of the children in several of the elementary schools in the poorest quarters of Warsaw. There were no slovenly-looking children such as we are familiar with in some of our own elementary schools in slum districts. The parent committees buy clothes wholesale and see to it that every child is suitably dressed. In one of the schools the Head Master told us that he had devoted eighteen hours in the first week of term to working with parents. They had had four meetings—to discuss the parents' duty to the school and the school's duty to the parents, to introduce new parents,

and to elect class parent committees and from them the general committee.

The free state schools, both elementary and secondary, are preferred to the private schools. The great difficulty about the state secondary schools is that there are not enough places for all the children. The children of government officials are given first place and the poorer children have priority over the rich. It sometimes happens that a father who can afford a private school but prefers his child to attend a state school will pay for another man's child to go to the private school.

As the population includes Ukrainians, Germans, Lithuanians, Czechs and Jews, there are educational laws that, on the demand of the parents, provide special elementary schools for any minority of 40 children of school age resident within the limits of a school district. Similarly, special religious instruction is given if the demand is 10. National religious minorities have equal rights as regards school affairs with the rest of the Polish population.

Nursery Schools

The educational authorities have realised the importance of establishing nursery schools. The capital alone has nearly 100 such schools for children under the age of seven. Attendance is, of course, voluntary. Many of these schools are divided into two departments, one for all under 5, and the other for children from 5 to 7. We visited one of the model nursery schools and were delighted with it. The building was modern, light and airy, and furnished for children. The rooms contained plants, flowers, aquariums and a rich supply of apparatus. The atmosphere of joy and creative activity showed that the children were learning to live before they were taught to read and write. There are already 1,430 free nursery schools in Poland, and seven specialised state training colleges for teachers who wish to go in for this type of work. We are sorry this issue contains no account of one of these nursery schools at work.

Elementary and Secondary Schools

Most of the good elementary and secondary schools have the medical side well organised. A doctor attends each school weekly, and there is generally a consultation and a dentist's room. Ailing children are sent away to the country. Many schools have developed the co-operative shop system, referred to on page 21 of this issue. In one school we saw a very good library system, and a club room with chess and draughts tables, geography puzzles, books and a variety of occupations. The room was open out of school hours and on Saturdays and Sundays, and as an experiment was a great success. Most of the schools have good gymnasiums and domestic science rooms. But in the actual classrooms the children still sit at desks and are taught by the teacher in front of them. We were sorry not to see more creative activity in the ordinary school work, but from signs, and from what we heard, the day is not far off when the creative method of learning will penetrate class work. As elsewhere in Europe and in America, we saw many good schools and some bad ones.

The secondary schools or gymnasiums are divided into three main types—the scientific, the modern, and the classical, and a fourth which has only recently been added and which is called the new modern because it replaces Latin by a modern language. From the point of view of equipment, building and medical care, the secondary schools are good. It was interesting to discover that the pupils keep up *all* their school subjects, including art and craft, to the end of their school career, and that they choose their three best subjects for their written school leaving examination. The examiners are the teachers themselves.

Technical Schools

We saw many technical schools and were struck by their high standard of work. Following the advice of the Treaty of Versailles, which advocates the founding of these institutions for the welfare of the working-classes, Poland has in the

space of ten years so developed this department that her schools can be favourably compared with those in Western Europe. The trade, technical and professional schools are highly efficient. Particularly interesting were those which are trying to preserve the peasant crafts, and at the same time give a broad and definite training in the principles and technique of applied art. Some of the weaving and pottery in the technical and professional and art schools in Cracow and Warsaw are exceedingly beautiful, and there are fine museums of art for the use of the students.

Art: Children's Art Work

This high standard of attainment is not confined to the specialised schools. Art work in the schools is vivid and rich in both colour and design, very characteristic of the Slav race and very beautiful. It was interesting to notice the influence of religion in imaginative work, particularly between the ages of 14 and 16. We should have liked to have had time to trace out the German, Austrian and Russian influence in those areas that had belonged to these partitions. The different psychological backgrounds were apparent in the work done by the children in these areas.

New Methods in Education

Certain aspects of new education have been incorporated in the general educational system of the country. Art is correlated to other school subjects and ample use is made of illustrative material. The methods of instruction are greatly objectivised and use is made of aquariums, plant life and natural history collections. A certain amount of Montessori, Decroly and other apparatus is in use, and the tendency is to borrow from all and to adapt according to need. A number of schools and classes are run on a modified Dalton plan. The most interesting experimental school that we visited was a normal school—a secondary school cum teacher training centre (described on

page 36). It is a boarding and day school for girls from 14 to 19. The girls work for three weeks on the usual assignment plan and then have a week of group work or lessons. The demonstration school connected with the large school is run on 'centres of interest', so that both the Decroly and the Dalton are in force. A number of schools have established psychological laboratories which are used by the schools of the district. The various measurement and intelligence tests are adapted to Polish needs, and some very useful work is being done, particularly in connection with vocational guidance.

Rural Education

In an agricultural country rural education is most important. One of the recent Polish laws laid down that each district must have two rural universities or people's colleges, one for men and one for women. The state provides the land and appoints and pays the teachers, while the community provides its own buildings and meets the running expenses. Teachers and students live together in one community. While the instruction is free, the students are expected to pay about 18/- a month to cover their board. The rest is paid in work for the community. These colleges are the centres of village social life. They are used by the schools, they run co-operative dairies and jam factories, and they are experimental stations for thoroughbred animals and good fruit stock. On leaving the college the men can buy at reduced prices in order to set up for themselves, and the teachers keep in close touch with them and advise them. A striking feature of this new development is the fact that the peasant youth is eager to take a share in national and cultural life. Feeling has been so stimulated that men and women who have passed through one of these rural colleges have greater standing and an added dignity in the eyes of their community. It even happens that a promise of marriage is conditional upon six months' attendance at an agricultural college!

Difficulties

These achievements are all the more remarkable when one realises the immense difficulties Polish administrators are having to face. The country is exceedingly poor. Lack of money still means lack of school buildings; the majority of these have to be used by two shifts. One school attends in the morning, another in the afternoon, and perhaps even a third in the evening. It has not yet been possible to create enough training colleges, and various transition measures have had to be adopted. In order to tackle illiteracy, a great deal is being done in adult education, with the inevitable result that young people attend continuation classes after a hard day's work when they are over-fatigued and incapable of benefitting by their studies.

Appreciation

It is impossible to mention the names of all those who showed us unfailing kindness and consideration, but we should like to give a word of public thanks to the Minister of Education for inviting us, and to all those at the Ministry who planned our tour and made so perfect arrangements for our comfort, especially M. B. Kielski, Chief of the Section, M. J. Hellmann and M. L. Zapolski. M. Kielski and his Committee undertook a great deal of work in connection with this issue, and he and M. Hellmann have been responsible for collecting, editing and translating the articles. In addition to this, the Polish Minister of Education has presented the illustration blocks and so made it possible to produce this richly illustrated number.

The Fellowship

After visiting England some years ago and contacting this movement, M. Hellmann formed a group of the Fellowship in Poland, and in 1927, at Locarno, a section was formed, Mme Radlinska taking the initiative. Mme Radlinska

is one of Poland's patriots, having from her youth upwards devoted herself to the cause of her country. She was at one time imprisoned in Siberia, and also served in the Women's Legion. She is now devoting herself to social service, in which subject she is Professor at the Free University of Warsaw.

M. Hellmann has been charged by the Ministry to establish a pedagogical museum in Warsaw, and has been sent by his Government to study museums in other European countries. It is hoped that we shall be able to have a new education section in this museum and that it will be a centre for statistics of progressive education in the Slav countries.

B. E.

D. V. H.

Visit to Germany

On the return journey from Poland the assistant editor stayed three days in Berlin, and had the privilege of an interview with Dr. Becker, the Prussian Minister of Education. She visited Dr. Karsen's schools, the Central Institute and Scharfenberg. We hope sometime to devote a special number to progressive education in Germany.

An Encyclopaedia for Teachers.

A remarkable collection of books has recently been published in America under the title of *The Classroom Teacher*. Sixty distinguished editors, among them William C. Bagley, William H. Kilpatrick, Virgil E. Dickson, Lewis M. Terman, Harold O. Rugg, have given their time and experience to the work, and with them have been associated countless others. *The Classroom Teacher* consists of 12 volumes and is a veritable *Encyclopaedia America* of the psychology, science and art of teaching, and in particular their practical problems. A complete set is on view at 11, Tavistock Square.

Vignettes of Polish Education

Impressions of Three Foreign Visitors

DR. ADOLPHE FERRIÈRE

One of the most remarkable schools I have seen anywhere was the Orzeszkowa Teachers Training College, conducted by Mme W. Dzierzbicka. The combination of individual and group work with work uniting the two—three weeks of individual alternating with one of group work with teachers—realises in a practical way the ideals of new education.

The two large *écoles maternelles* we saw were also admirable. The children had free choice of educative games based on Montessori and Decroly, but adapted to special requirements. And not a single letter of the alphabet in either of the schools—a state of affairs, to my mind, approaching perfection!

In no other country have I seen self-government and co-operative work so widely spread. Commerce is allied with social services, sport, hygiene and nature study in ways that might well be imitated in other places. The primary experimental schools are co-educational.

These things are all an earnest of a fine future. Tests have proved the success of the new scientific methods, and soon all the children in the country will be benefitting by them.

PROFESSOR KATZAROFF, of the University of Sofia

It is impossible in a short space to describe all we saw, or to express the admiration we felt for the energy and spiritual force expended by the Polish people during the ten years of their independent existence.

The Poznan Exhibition showed the aims after which Poland is striving, and our visits to schools in Warsaw and Cracow showed how far these ideals are being realised. The schools set up under Austrian, German and Russian domination were neither nearly sufficient for the needs of a population of 30,000,000 people, nor of the same type, or of any use to the new state. As is shown elsewhere, schools had to be built *en masse*, teachers trained *en masse* and quickly, all school material supplied *en masse*, illiteracy reduced, and every kind and class of educa-

tion undertaken, all at one and the same time, by a country devastated by war. What has been actually accomplished is astonishing.

Difficult Conditions

In these conditions it was impossible to introduce into every school new education ideals. These have been concentrated specially in the schools of the capital and other large towns, to serve as models for the country at large. These schools are founded in every particular on the lines of new education. The village schools are owned to be unsatisfactory, and the amount of labour and time necessary to transform them is enormous, but the country is unanimously determined upon the work. The number of qualified teachers has risen to 96 per cent, all undergoing vacation courses in new methods.

A comprehensive scheme of evening continuation classes has been laid out, but it would appear more satisfactory if these could be held during the day, for we had the impression that the pupils were too tired at the end of their day's work really to benefit. A scheme of people's agricultural colleges has also been devised on the lines of the Danish people's high schools, and apparently filling a great rural need. Parents take a great and lively interest in all educational matters.

The Poznan Exhibition

The Polish educational authority expressed in the preface to its programme its intention to break with old verbal class methods of teaching and to initiate an education that would bring children into direct contact with the subjects studied. We noted everywhere sincere effort to carry out this intention on the part of all teachers. Nowhere were these efforts more clearly shown than in the section in the Exhibition devoted to the Ministries of Culture and Education. Everything that might be accomplished, or that it was desired to accomplish, was set out in these sections, all founded on the new ideals.

There were small individual desks; abundant, varied and well-thought-out material;

laboratories, much of the excellent equipment of which had been made by the pupils themselves; pretty aquariums and gardens cared for by the children, and natural history collections prepared and arranged by them; workshops and studios of all kinds; drawings of all kinds by children of all ages; singing, gymnastic, rhythmic and Swedish drill material of all kinds; centres of interest, projects, Montessori, etc.; all kinds of things illustrating self-government and auto-education, co-operative studies, children's journeys, different pupil organisations. In fact, a complete ideal scheme of new education—a scheme that has been begun officially and that is already being attempted officially in the schools of Warsaw and Cracow.

Montessori, Decroly and Other Methods

In all these attempts it could be seen that the strongest influences were those of Montessori and Decroly in infant and primary, and of Dalton in secondary schools. Thus it is obvious that schools are hastening to transform old into new methods. The lively interchange of question and answer between children and teachers was evident, as was also the method of observation, experiment and research on the part of the children themselves in the laboratories. Relations between teachers and children were amiable and free, and the children's general cleanliness, health and good clothing were striking.

All schools have a club to which the children repair in their free time for reading, working and amusement. And all have libraries. We were greatly impressed by the co-operative school shops, elsewhere described in this issue. All schools, too, have many different children's organisations, run by themselves, which keep them from coming into contact with harmful political influences. But it was a surprise to find that youths of sixteen and seventeen engage in military exercises.

The well-organised classes in manual work supply most educational material; the girls spend one morning every two weeks in cookery and the purchasing of food.

We were impressed by the enthusiasm of the teachers for the new methods, though they had been trained in old colleges along traditional lines. And these colleges are gradually going over to newer ways in order to prepare teachers for the kind of instruction they will have to give in the modernized schools.

Impressions Summed Up

One's impressions may be summed up as follows. It would be desirable to have more flowers, gay colours and pictures in the schools, more liberty, initiative and independent work on the part of the pupils, more courage to break with the old scholastic tradition and embrace the new on the part of the teachers, and less satisfaction with what has already been attained and more criticism on the part of everyone. Yet we were convinced by all we saw of the energy and enthusiasm with which the Polish people are applying themselves to the betterment of education, by the wealth of the country and the sterling qualities of the people, by the fine ideals and the ardent desire to attain them, that before long Polish schools will be counted among the best in Europe. But these ideals can be attained only if bureaucracy gains no foothold in the educational world. The progress made in the short space of ten years evoked our wholehearted admiration.

M. MAURICE WEBER, *Membre du Comité directeur de l'Association des Compagnons de l'Université Nouvelle.*

This visit to Poland showed the great importance of new education and also demonstrated the large amount of work to be done everywhere, particularly in France.

School Buildings

In the *écoles maternelles*, the primary and secondary schools we saw in Warsaw and Cracow, I was struck by the wide corridors, large, light and airy classrooms, finely-appointed gymnasiums, bathrooms, studios, kitchens, and dining-halls, and by the central heating apparatus everywhere installed. The great halls, in some cases luxuriously appointed, were capable of holding groups of children and masters and family groups; their size would be the envy of even the most recently built secondary schools in Paris, as would be the size of the staff rooms.

All primary and secondary schools had well-equipped surgeries and dentists' rooms with every facility for preventive as well as curative treatment. These were all the more noteworthy as the schools of Poland are day, not boarding schools, and the only meal given is mid-day dinner. In France, where second-grade boarding schools are

MEMBERS OF THE POLISH GOVERNMENT



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DR. S. CZERWINSKI
Minister of Education

THE POSITION OF POLAND



general, these facilities should be greater than they are; it seems to me that there is everything, or almost everything, to be done in these ways in French lyceums and colleges. Primary education in France is perhaps rather more advanced, but I should like to make particular mention of the above side of Polish education.

Playgrounds and Health

We saw playgrounds for children of all ages, in Poznan, Warsaw and Cracow, where, in addition to every sort of facility for open-air occupation, there were also refreshment and bath rooms. On the banks of the Vistula, in Warsaw, there is a municipal anti-tuberculosis station, where children and young people can have sun-baths on the sand, and swimming and boating, living in the fresh air and sun. The banks of the Vistula are lined with such stations, supported by various organisations, for the benefit of employés, students, etc. In Warsaw, too, we saw a huge and very well organised open-air bathing-pool, full of bathers, and an indoor pool at Cracow.

Physical Education

Some miles to the north of Warsaw an enormous institute of physical education is now being developed. It has open-air and indoor bathing-pools, gymnasiums, stadiums and pupils' quarters, and will be the training centre for all Polish physical health instructors. This branch of education is taken very seriously, and the theoretical as well as the practical side very well organised. One pupil we spoke with was supplementing her course at the institute by vacation courses in Denmark and Sweden in order to have some practical knowledge of what is

being done in other countries in this branch of education. At the Exhibition at Poznan an entire building was devoted to physical education, the Departments of Education and of War working here together in close co-operation.

In Warsaw we visited a special manual training school, where future teachers are taught by the centres of interest method, and have experience of every kind of manual occupation. Cracow showed us a very fine school of embroidery and weaving, and another devoted to the graphic arts.

Centres of Interest

The Exhibition was extraordinarily interesting in showing how the new Polish education is being built up round centres of interest. We saw excellent material of all kinds that had been prepared and arranged by children, and were particularly struck by the fine laboratory equipments, and by the rapid development in chemistry and electricity being carried through by a group of young engineers drawn from the higher schools and already doing excellent work in experimental science. Instruction in mathematics is as concrete and practical as in science.

In several schools are small natural history departments where animals can be studied in their own native surroundings, and at Poznan we saw a large botanical garden, connected with a horticultural college, where children can walk about and at the same time have lessons in nature study.

It remains to be noted that the new Polish education, though using hardly ever the actual phrase *école unique* (one-school), yet seems to be developing towards this idea, and to be inspired by it.

Mass Education in Poland: Its Progress and Problems

(Abridged from a paper read at the Elsinore Conference)

By B. Kielski

(*Chief of Section, Ministry of Education, Warsaw*)

THE organisation and progress of the school system and of public education in Poland took place under quite exceptional conditions. In eleven years it has not been possible for the country completely to recover from its past catastrophes, and for the state to attain in every respect the same standard as the most civilised states of the world. Therefore the problems of schooling and of public education are different in Poland from those of Western Europe, and the progress achieved has been only relatively considerable.

Cultural Achievements

When finally Poland's rôle as the bulwark of Europe against Eastern invasion was accomplished, she fell a victim to the superior military force of her three neighbours. The last great protests against her impending fate were the two great cultural enactments: the creation of the Committee for Public Education (1773) and the Constitution of May 3rd, 1791. The Education Committee was probably not only the first Ministry of Education in the history of Europe, but also the first public institution to apply modern theories of education.

The vitality of the Polish nation was in no way diminished during the period of political subjection. The noblest works of Polish art originated in this period. Sienkiewicz and Reymont, for instance, were both Nobel prize-winners; abroad, Joseph Conrad Korzeniowski occupied a unique place in English literature, and Curie-Skłodowska in French science. Chopin was a product of the same period. At the same time the vitality and patriotism of the nation were evinced in oft-repeated armed rebellions, and finally in the part played in the Great War by the national legions. Only after the foregoing has been taken into consideration can the soul of Poland be understood. It becomes clear also how it was that the nation, at the moment of restoration of political independence, was ready at once to resume the

developing of its culture, and how it is that a period of only ten years has sufficed to raise the nation culturally to the level of others.

There was a far darker side to the picture. Poland's best sons perished during whole successive generations, in defence of liberty. The nation was torn into three parts, each governed by a different alien ruler, exposed to different influences, and possessing different administrations, usually in conflict with the spirit of the nation and its needs. In Prussian Poland, Polish children could receive instruction in schools only in German, whilst in Russian Poland schools were not only exceedingly few in number, but the speaking of Polish in them was strictly prohibited, except in private schools. In former Austrian Poland public education had enjoyed a measure of liberty since 1867.

Educational Problems

After the regaining of independence, the first and most important task was the introduction of Polish as the official language. This required the providing or the training of a sufficient number of qualified teachers. Only former Austrian Poland was adequately supplied with such teachers, and this province of necessity for some years supplied teachers to the other two portions of Poland. The number of teachers required in former German Poland was very great, as the number of Poles employed in teaching, as, indeed, in any German government institution, was practically negligible. In former Russian Poland conditions were in this respect somewhat better, but as a result of the urgent necessity of the opening of a large number of elementary schools, in order to make up existing deficiencies, the demand for teachers was, if anything, even greater than in German Poland. To-day this difficulty has virtually been overcome, although the higher birthrate of post-War years now demands a further augmentation of the number of teachers.

The next problem was the elaboration of a new school system, to replace the existing three alien systems, and the drawing up of curricula for the different types of schools. This was by no means an easy task, the more so that it had to be undertaken at a time when the whole question of education was in a state of flux all over the world. In Poland education had immediately to be put on a uniform, national basis, while at the same time the general progress made in pedagogy during recent times had to be taken into consideration.

Educational Reconstruction

This work was to a certain extent facilitated by preliminary studies accomplished partly before the war, either by individual Polish pedagogues or by educational associations. Of the latter, the Cracow group of teachers is worth special mention, as it in 1905 elaborated the principles of secondary school reform, as well as the curriculum of an eight-form secondary science school. This group condemned methods of cramming and supported what are now known as activity schools. The idea served as a guiding principle in the elaboration of curricula in independent Poland, the more so that certain of the supporters of this method later occupied official positions in the Ministry of Education. A second group was that of Warsaw, which originated in 1915, working at first independently, and later in collaboration with Cracow. The introduction of the new curricula was commenced in 1919, at first into general instruction schools in former Russian Poland, a year later into former Austrian Polish schools, and, finally, after a certain transition period, into the former German provinces of Poland. In practice there is now a uniform new Polish system, based upon these curricula, and existing on the strength of a Ministerial decree of 1927.

The basis of mass education in Poland is the 7-year elementary school, possessing in principle seven classes; the five-year secondary course is based on this. Secondary schools are of three types: scientific, modernistic, and classical. In practice, however, a very large number of lower secondary schools exist, which give a three-year course of study, without Latin, and have a uniform curriculum. The three forms of these schools correspond to the three highest classes of the elementary schools. The reconciliation

of the curricula of these classes in both types of school has already been commenced, and will have been completed by 1932.

The New Curriculum

With the object of an activity school in view, the authorities, in constructing curricula, began by limiting the number of subjects taught, the maximum number of subjects taught to one class in secondary schools being eight. In higher secondary schools special attention was given to "didactic bases": those groups of subjects in which any given school specialized. In connection with these, school laboratories, biological workshops and other institutions, almost entirely absent from secondary schools under the Partitioning Powers, were created.

Educational excursions were made a part of the curriculum and individual methods of instruction recommended. The extra teacher training necessary was given by various supplementary training courses, as well as by the creation of a corps of special professional instructors. Finally, the production of appropriate, often luxuriously issued textbooks, has developed in an entirely satisfactory manner.

In both elementary and secondary schools the compulsory instruction of drawing, music and singing has been introduced, whilst manual work has been made a compulsory subject in the secondary science schools up to and including the sixth form. Special emphasis has been laid on the importance of physical training and hygiene, and medical supervision has been provided in nearly every school. As to the social and moral aspects of education, these are, apart from compulsory (though tolerant) religious instruction, based to a fairly large extent on self-government, scouting, etc. Not only has corporal punishment been entirely abolished, but all punishments and rewards have been condemned. Co-operation with the home has been organised in the form of parents' associations, which are compulsory in elementary and voluntary in secondary schools.

Administrative Problems

The school authorities simultaneously encountered numerous problems of a quantitative nature. The number of schools, particularly of elementary schools, existing in former Russian Poland was exceedingly small. The children of more prosperous

parents were generally educated at home, while the poorer classes were able to acquire with the greatest difficulty only the most elementary knowledge. The percentage of illiterates was very high in this part of Poland. The school authorities were faced with the need of creating without delay a very large number of elementary schools, as well as of taking over a considerable number of private schools. The difficulties included not only the necessity of rapidly producing an adequate number of trained teachers, but also the elaboration of a rational scheme for the distribution of schools, and for the erection of a sufficient number of buildings. The last-named problem in particular was no easy one for a state which had at the same time to reorganise practically every other branch of public work.

The Elementary School

Taking as a basis seven years of compulsory education, an elementary school was defined as one possessing seven classes and seven teachers, with a number of scholars not exceeding 350.

In order that no child need cover a distance of over three kilometres to attend school, a large number of schools had to be provided. As not even the richest country could in the short space of ten years build so great a number, there was no alternative but to create, wherever conditions were such that no other course of action was possible, temporary schools of a lower type, including even one-class schools. Wherever possible, however, one seven-class school is founded rather than seven one-class schools. In some cases the authorities have fused together a number of local, lower-type schools to form one school of the higher, official type. Thus, though the increase in the total number of schools is somewhat retarded, the organisation and buildings are better than they would otherwise be. Further, the number of children admitted to elementary schools has increased, the percentage in 1921 being 66.2 and in 1927 92.8. During the years 1921 to 1927 the annual increase in number of school children was, as a result of the War, smaller than normally, so that the provision of school accommodation could more easily keep up with the demand.

The number, however, began rapidly to rise in 1927, and will, according to estimates, continue till 1935. The question of the

provision of school buildings is at present, therefore, the most urgent as well as the most difficult with which the Polish educational authorities have to cope, and that upon which the Ministry of Education places the greatest emphasis. It has been computed that, for the satisfaction by 1935 of this increasing demand for school buildings, according to the most economical plan, not less than three and a half milliard zlotys will be required, *i.e.* about 250,000,000 (about £5,814,000) per annum.

Other Reforms and Racial Minorities

I have discussed here merely a few of the problems of education in Poland with which we had to deal during the ten years of existence of the new Polish state. Lack of space does not permit the consideration of preparatory or of trade schooling, of university schools, of the organisation of state and communal educational authorities, etc. I should like, however, to touch upon one very important question—that of the provision of schools for racial minorities. I would refer those interested to the handbook, *Education in Poland*, published in English by the Ministry of Education, and would here merely state that the Polish educational authorities have done their utmost loyalty to solve this question in the spirit of the treaty dealing with national minorities, in many cases even making greater concessions than were actually required by the provisions of that treaty.

New Education

It is not surprising, in view of the numerous and difficult problems which we have had to solve in so short a time, that Poland is not as far advanced as certain other countries in experiments in new education. Yet the fact should not be overlooked that very many of the individual postulates of new education are included in the Polish system. Polish schools can as a whole to-day be regarded as uniformly organized, in the sense that there is no obstacle in the way of the more intelligent children of the poorer classes climbing every rung of the educational ladder. At the same time, too, the system permits to a large extent the satisfaction of individual abilities and interests. The principles of activity and independent work are on the whole applied both in theory and in practice. In the domain of moral instruction



Stanley Szyller (14 years)

Elementary School No. 30, Cracow

THE CRACOW "LAJKONIK"

The attacks of the Tartar hordes in the Middle Ages are commemorated with quaint ceremonial. This popular custom is known as "Lajkonik"



M. Lancucka (15 years)

State Secondary School for Girls, Cracow

DESIGNS FOR CRACOVIAN PEASANT CHESTS

the schools have applied the system of co-operation with the home, and of developing the principle of pupil self-government, while discipline has been fundamentally based on awakening within the child a sense of responsibility, an understanding of the need of discipline, and a recognition of the superiority of spirit over matter. The schools also give aesthetic instruction, whilst the emotional side, so characteristic of the Polish nation, is especially considered. Manual work has in a short space of time reached a high degree of development. Finally, physical training, hygiene, and medical supervision, unknown in Poland before the War, have been introduced, and have reached a high standard of efficiency.

The Timetable

There remain, really, only two of the postulates of new education the attitude to which of the Polish school authorities requires explanation: free timetables, and a liberal attitude towards, or the total abolition of, examinations. The Polish school authorities consider that the satisfaction of the former postulate is contingent on the existence of favourable conditions, above all on the appropriate preparation of teachers, and on the appropriate standard of the schools. Wherever such conditions exist, the authorities encourage tests and experiments, often even taking the initiative in this action. Thus, the Dalton plan has been introduced into a few state schools and teachers' training colleges, and to a certain extent into some of the elementary schools. But the chief initiative in this direction lies with the private schools. There are, however, relatively very few such schools capable and desirous of profiting from the liberty thus allowed, although many of them have attained a high level, and have created for themselves comparatively favourable conditions for their future development. Some experiments undertaken by Polish schools are described below in different articles.

Examinations

As to the examination system, this is, on the whole, quite liberal in Poland. In schools

of general instruction there are only two examinations: an entrance, and a final examination on leaving school. In the former case, it is desired to ascertain whether the child possesses the minimum of knowledge and degree of intelligence necessary for further tuition, certain schools applying the method of tests or of longer observation. The matriculation examination is based on the principle of the candidate selecting the four subjects which he desires to take, from a group of subjects fixed by special regulation. Normally he takes three written papers, as well as an oral examination, in his four subjects. He may, in certain circumstances, have certain exemptions, so that cases are known of candidates taking only one of the four obligatory oral examinations. There are no examinations required in passing from form to form, promotion being based upon an observation of the whole year's work.

Having been obliged by the educational authorities to abandon the examination system, there can be no doubt that there were teachers who at first contented themselves with the semblance of independent work on the part of pupils, and relaxed their observation of the results of work and of its execution. But there is every reason to suppose that these anomalies, due to the transition period through which education in Poland is passing, will before long entirely be removed.

The Psychological Foundation

The strengthening of the foundations of the new education can take place above all by the development of psychological research on children and adolescents on the one hand, and on the other hand by a knowledge of the psychology of children and the application of methods of education based on this knowledge. Without this psychological foundation there can be no possibility of the complete and permanent development of new education. The seeds of future development in this respect have already been sown during the past decade; during the coming decade we may expect to view their flourishing growth, and with it the further advancement and development of new education proper.

PSYCHOLOGY

Test Methods and Psycho-analysis

By Professor S. Baley

(*University of Warsaw*)

It is only within recent years that test methods have been applied to any large extent to the solution of school problems, though this has not been due to lack of interest. The Binet-Terman scale of tests was early translated into Polish, and at the present time a large number of translations and adaptations of this scale exist, based on Terman's modification. J. W. Dawid, a Polish psychologist, studied the problems of the nature and the measurement of intelligence, and invented a test depending on the arrangement of pictures, known in Europe as Dawid's test. Dawid's collaborators (among them Mlle Aniela Szyowna) inaugurated research in schools, having as their object, first of all, the determination of the number of ideas possessed by school children.

During the same period, Mme J. Joteyko, well known abroad in the domain of psychology, conducted research in Belgian laboratories and schools on the method of tests, and communicated the results to her fellow-countrymen. Then translated compilations of foreign tests and textbooks adapted to local conditions began to appear, and the Warsaw Pedagogic Institute gave sporadic tests in Warsaw schools. Though some have accepted tests with enthusiasm, there are still many who regard them critically, and this is due to the disproportion existing in Poland between the volume of literature on tests and their sphere of practical application. It is only recently that attempts have been begun to carry out tests systematically on a larger number of cases, in order to obtain results of real value.

Tests in Special Schools and Centres

The first field in which intelligence tests were applied in a systematic and effective manner was that of special schools for deficient children, the credit belonging to Mme M. Grzgorzewska, the present chief of the

Institute of Special Instruction. A second field is the professional consultation centres and the special psychological centres for children now being opened. These centres examine intelligence independently of opinions issued by the schools, and make use of the Terman, Otis or Thorndike tests. Certain of them, such as the Municipal Psychotechnical Laboratory for school children in Warsaw, use intelligence tests of their own compilation.

Tests in Secondary Schools

Mme Joteyko attempted, in connection with the problem of uniform schooling, to arrange tests for 14-year-old children, with the object of selecting those who should be sent for further instruction to a secondary school. These did not, however, yield definite results. At present certain secondary schools and teachers' training colleges have experimentally introduced the use of psychological examinations together with the ordinary entrance examination. But no norms have yet been accepted in this domain either. Certain higher military academies in Poland have made the entry of pupils contingent on their reaching a satisfactory standard in a psychological test.

Knowledge Tests

The position of tests to ascertain knowledge is somewhat worse. In these, as a rule, little interest is shown. The first attempt at their application on a wider scale took place in Poland in 1925, when, on the initiative of Mme Kaczynska, about 6,000 Warsaw children were subjected to tests in intelligence and knowledge, carried out under the control of the school authorities. It remains to be mentioned that the as yet not very numerous experimental schools in Poland consider it essential that their staff include a school psychologist.

Freud and Adler

Interest was felt in Poland for the theory of psycho-analysis fairly early, but from the very inception of this science, particularly in the form given it by Freud, it met with numerous reservations both as to its theoretical postulates and as to the possibility of their practical application, because of the complicated methods involved, and certain ethical scruples. A large number of books on psycho-analysis exist in Poland, and in 1928 a textbook was published which treated of the whole of psycho-analytical theory in the light of Freud's findings. Practical psycho-analysts who apply this method of treatment are to be found, but their number is relatively small, as is that of their patients. Educators also have adopted an attitude of reserve towards these theories and methods,

though there have been isolated cases of the application of Freudian psycho-analysis by school doctors. Certain children's consultation centres, such as that maintained by the Warsaw Children's Friends Society, apply psycho-analytic methods in certain cases of difficult children, calling in the assistance of specialists.

The Adler school of thought has met with less approval in medical circles than Freud's school, but is more popular amongst pedagogues, and the application of this method to the examination and correction of difficult pupils has met with the warm support of certain teachers. Mr. A. Rondthaler, Head Master of a Warsaw secondary school, has popularized Adler's method in a series of lectures, and has introduced it into his school.

Psychological Work in Schools

By M. Kaczynska

(*School Psychologist*)

THE introduction of psychology into schools was officially recognised in 1926, when the office of school psychologist was created for government public elementary schools. Private elementary and secondary schools are also beginning to appoint psychologists. The function of a school psychologist is different in private schools from what it is in state schools, a large number of which are served by one psychologist. Teachers are required to co-operate in the elaboration of test examinations for the solution of school problems, and their attention is thus drawn to those educational questions which have to be solved by scientific methods. The pedagogic value of the teacher increases as he trains himself to recognise the characters of his pupils. Lectures, conferences, exhibitions, etc., are also arranged.

Classification of Children

The school psychologists first consider children just commencing their school career, and place them in three parallel classes—low,

average, and high, on the basis of tests applied. In 1927 about 200 nursery school children were experimentally examined, and the appropriate tests selected on the basis of this material. In 1928, 625 children in 7 different elementary schools were examined and the experimental material thus obtained was taken as the basis of standards of intelligence for all children. At the end of the year the authorities found that the number of children who had failed to gain promotion to the 2nd standard had fallen from the usual proportion of 20–25 per cent in the 1st standard of elementary schools to 8–12 per cent where the above differentiation into 3 classes was applied. In 1929 we examined about 4,000 children, organising on the basis of our results, over eighty 1st standards, differentiated according to low, average or high abilities. The rational organisation of these classes was also considered, and it was decided to have in one standard not more than 30 children of the low class, 40 of the average, and 48 of the high. The large

number of children in our classes is an evil due to the short time in which the introduction of universal education had to be accomplished.

Application of Results

Further, we try to adapt appropriate requirements and appropriate methods of instruction to the classes so formed, and lectures, dealing with child psychology and new methods of instruction, are arranged for the teachers of such classes. At the same time, the importance of developing the creative faculties and an independent spirit is emphasized. Constant systematic observation of each child has been introduced, with the object of transference from one class to another during the school year, if necessary. These series of parallel classes will enable each child steadily to progress according to his psychical potentialities and to his rate of development, and he will also be able to complete his elementary school course. At present only 30-40 per cent of the children attending elementary schools complete the whole course, the remainder often spending two or even three years in one class, leaving school without having received a complete elementary education, and being thus unprepared for life.

Official Curricula too Difficult

In 1928 we examined about 6,000 children of the three lower standards, testing intelligence as well as knowledge of subject matter. Examination in subject matter was carried

out by teachers, while intelligence was measured by professional psychologists, together with university students trained in the use of test methods. The object of these examinations was to learn to what extent the schools realised the expectations of the official curricula and at the same time to ascertain the efficiency of the individual schools of this district of Warsaw. The results of this work showed that the official, universally applied curricula are too difficult for the children for whom they are intended. For example, the knowledge of number required by the curriculum is attained by only 5.4 per cent of the children of Standard I, and by only 3 per cent of Standard II. In the case of mental arithmetic, 28.6 per cent of Standard I children entirely fulfil requirements, 39 per cent of Standard II, and 24.5 per cent of Standard III.

Efficiency of Schools

They also cast much light on the disproportion between the requirements of the curricula and the mental potentialities of the children. As to the efficiency of the schools in question, quite unforeseen differences appeared between the individual schools. The mean results for each class varied between 18 and 75 per cent in subject matter, and 25 and 65 per cent in intelligence. The results were then plotted on graphs, classifying the children according to their knowledge of each school subject and to intelligence, and the school was classified according to the mean results.



Bem Elementary School, Warsaw



Chemical Institute, Poznan University



Queen Jadwiga State Secondary School for Girls, Warsaw

A black and white photograph of a chemistry laboratory. Several students in school uniforms are seated at long wooden tables, working with various pieces of laboratory glassware and equipment. On the left, there is a tall wooden cabinet with glass doors, filled with bottles and containers. In the background, a tall wooden stand holds a large piece of equipment, possibly a gasometer or a similar apparatus. The room has a high ceiling and a few small framed pictures on the wall.

The photograph shows a laboratory or workshop setting. Five individuals, all wearing white lab coats and white caps, are seated at long, light-colored wooden tables. They are engaged in various tasks, possibly related to the equipment on the tables. The room has a checkered floor in the foreground. On the wall, there is a large poster titled "ZUŻYCIE ENERGII" (Energy Consumption) with a table of data. The poster lists energy consumption values for different types of equipment and materials. The room is well-lit, with a large window in the background and a hanging lamp in the foreground.

WYKONAWCA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
WYKONAWCA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
PODSTAWY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
WYKONAWCA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
PODSTAWY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70																														

Household Economy Centre in one of the State Trade Schools for Girls in Warsaw

CHARACTER TRAINING

The Organisation of Moral Education in Secondary Schools

By M. Majkowska

(*The E. Plater State Secondary School for Girls, Warsaw*)

THE educational authorities attach great importance to moral education, as is shown by a circular of the Ministry of Education (1927) cited below. This circular applies to all schools and to teachers' training colleges.

Aim of Education

The chief aim of every school should be to educate the young generation so that physically and morally sound, nationally creative and socially-minded citizens of the state are produced. The basis of individual instruction should be found in the proper direction of the natural impulse of youth towards physical and spiritual strength, and in the development of self-respect, personal responsibility and conscientiousness. Teachers should appeal to the children's social instincts, ample opportunity for the training of which can be found.

In everyday school life importance should be laid on the arousing of *esprit de corps*. The pupil's interest in the school's welfare should be maintained by evoking a feeling of respect for it, as the institution in which he commences his social life, and in which the foundations of order and organisation of work are laid. It is of fundamental importance that school should be a place in which all pupils, of whatever nationality, religion or social or financial standing, live together peaceably and harmoniously.

Organisation

These regulations provide for form masters or mistresses. Of the various duties of a form master, the regulations lay special stress on that of thoroughly acquainting

himself with the individual pupils of his form. At least one member of the staff of a given school should possess a good knowledge of the psychology and the circumstances of all the pupils in a given class or form; without this knowledge teachers cannot satisfactorily carry out their work.

The regulations further lay down the principle, hitherto unknown in many schools, of so-called 'special tutors'. These are necessary because the division of children into classes or forms is not always feasible, the uniform organisation of the work of children from different forms, and in some cases of that of the whole school, being required. The institution of special tutors is further justified by the fact that certain domains of moral education require special talents, knowledge or skill.

The regulations leave the inspectorate to decide which special branches of moral education are to be introduced into any school. This decision should be made contingent on the presence on the staff of the school of a teacher capable of giving the instruction desired to be introduced. One person may carry out the duties both of form master and special tutor.

The rôle of head master or mistress becomes the more important and responsible the greater is the number of teachers, and the more concentrated the instruction given in the realm of moral education. Apart from supervision and general direction, the head master's special care should be to see that the activities of individual tutors do not conflict, but form one whole, directed towards the same general end.

Self-Government in Polish Schools

By M. Majkowska

DURING the period of political subjection the basis of moral education in the few Polish schools consisted of the inculcation of patriotic sentiments, the strengthening of national consciousness, and initiation into the struggle with the denationalising tendencies of the Partitioning Powers. The school worked in this direction hand in hand with the home.

Children's Organisations

The children's organisations, having as their object either learning the history and the cultural achievements of their country, or presenting a united front to the alien authorities in school, arose spontaneously in the regions under Russian rule, and were characterised by their exceptional strength and solidarity. The moral side of education lost none of its importance after the War; in the changed conditions of regained liberty its significance became even greater. Formerly the youth of Poland learned how to fight and to die for the liberation of their country. Now they have to learn by creative work how to live for it. The spirit of this age demands that man be socially enlightened and suitably prepared for his work as a citizen.

A school as a collective entity is a place where the child learns how to live in a community, gets to know the meaning of rights and responsibilities, learns to respect regulations for the maintenance of order, masters the art of intercourse with others, and learns his future duties as a citizen. A school is a community, and life in a community must be organised, if anarchy is to be avoided. As a consequence of the requirements of modern life, a potent educational organisation, the "School-children's Self-Government", has appeared in the Polish school system. This organisation has spread with unusual rapidity, having been introduced into schools of all types, as well as into teacher training colleges.

Differing Systems

The creation of school-children's self-governing organisations took place under different conditions, in different schools—in some they appeared as broad organisations,

including the whole of school activities, but in most cases they developed from a small unit which gradually extended the sphere of its activities. In many cases, particularly in teacher training colleges, the nucleus of self-government was a pupils' co-operative store, around which grew various societies of a social, self-educative, or sporting nature, until finally all these united to form one institution.

This process is best illustrated by the diagram given below, which represents the gradual evolution of a Warsaw elementary school.



Activities and Objects

During the school year 1924-25 a manual work society was formed in the school. During the following year this society, without in any way interfering with its original functions, opened a co-operative store and founded an artistic and social club. In 1926-27 a library run by the children themselves was opened, as well as a branch of the National Air Defence League. In 1927-28 all these institutions were united into a self-governing organisation which included: (1) a school-children's mutual aid society; (2) a sports club; (3) a manual work society; (4) an artistic and social club; (5) a branch of the Polish Red Cross; (6) a branch of the National Air Defence League (7) a co-operative store; and (8) a library.

As can be seen from the diagram, the sphere of activities widens continuously with the evolution of intellectual and emotional life. The higher the children's standards,

the more profound their comprehension of communal responsibility; the more numerous their cultural needs, the wider the sphere of activity. The highest degree of development of self-government has been attained in teacher training colleges, the pupils of which are more socially developed than are those of elementary and secondary schools.

These self-governing bodies have as their objects: (1) the uniting of all pupils in any school into a compact and disciplined community; (2) the inculcation of high sentiments of solidarity and comradeship; (3) the creation of a healthy collective spirit and the raising of ethical standards; (4) the development of a sense of responsibility for the honour of the school; (5) the development of initiative and of creative ability, and of collective entities.

Internal Organisation

The internal organisation is broadly as follows: Every pupil of a given school is a member of the self-governing organisation, with the exception of the members of the lowest classes of elementary and secondary schools. Each class is an autonomous body, electing from amongst its members a board or committee of three, a chairman or captain of the class, a secretary and a treasurer, responsible for all class activities. The boards elect from among their number a central board, which co-ordinates the actions of the class boards and which is responsible for the activities of the organisation as a whole. The supreme authority is the "parliament" or general meeting of all its members.

Class meetings are usually held every week; the order consists of the reading of papers, of debates, *questionnaires*, and finally of the discussion and settling of current affairs. Meetings of the central board are held less frequently, usually once monthly, while general meetings take place only two or three times during the year.

Spheres of Activity

The sphere of activities consists in the development of character and the formation of certain firm and permanent ethical principles, and in the creation of a community spirit in the pupils and their preparation in citizenship. The various branches of self-government include:

1. *Mutual Aid*: (a) Material (school lunches, clothes, medical aid, loans). In these mat-

ters there is often close co-operation with parents' associations. (b) In study. (c) In morality (the devotion of special attention to children requiring discipline).

2. *A Court of Justice*, to elucidate all misunderstandings in the mutual relations of the pupils, and of the pupils and the school authorities. The court is not permanent in many schools.

3. *A Store*, conducted on co-operative lines. The children buy wholesale, work out the retail prices, conduct the shop and do the book-keeping themselves.

Many schools also possess their own workshops, the profits of which are used for activities such as excursions, sports, etc.

4. *School Magazines* depict the life of the children, who discuss subjects of interest to them, exercise their imagination, and publish their budding literary efforts, a vital necessity at certain ages.

5. *Libraries and Reading Rooms* are in many cases run by the children under the direction of the teachers; this branch of work is most popular.

6. *Household and Order Committees* maintain order and cleanliness and care for the classrooms and furniture.

7. *Hygiene and Sports Committees* deal with school hygiene, arrange athletic contests, etc.

8. *Artistic and Social Committees* organise theatricals, social events, excursions, etc.

Additional Activities—and Aims

Finally, self-educative circles are organised, as well as external sections for social work: Red Cross branches, branches of the National Air Defence League, the care of homeless children, of disabled ex-soldiers.

The variety of work in school self-government bodies is great, and the sphere of action is more or less wide according to the initiative and activity of the children. The basic principle is that the entire activity should be based on the independent work of its members.

The aim of self-government is to concentrate effort in order to attain better and more efficient work—to teach its members to perceive the needs and shortcomings of their immediate environment; to attempt to remedy these defects by means within their own power, to work for the sake of achievement, and not for praise. Every pupil is obliged to take an active part in the work of his organisation.

Teacher Co-operation

The rôle of the staff is to see that the division of labour is as far as possible uniform, so as not to overburden the more active and self-sacrificing children, and to induce the more passive, shy, or indolent members to assume their share of the work by appealing to their self-respect, and by pointing out to them in what field of endeavour they can best utilise their energies.

This system exacts much more watchful and careful work on the part of the staff,

which, although relegated to the background, has to exercise a discreet and potent influence, direct the enthusiasm of the pupils and their energies into proper channels, watch over the execution of the work, restrain some, encourage others, and prevent undesirable conflicts.

Such teachers have to be good psychologists and skilled organisers. Above all they must understand and be sincerely fond of children.

Parental Co-operation with Elementary Schools

By L. Zapolski

(*Inspector of Schools*)

THE Government education authorities work in conjunction with councils on which sit representatives of local government, teachers, hygienists, clergymen and prominent public workers. The district council has an advisory voice in all questions of organisation and administration, and the county school council deals exclusively with county schools; its work consists in advising in matters directly or indirectly connected with the elementary school system.

Boards of Superintendence and Guardians

Apart from these councils, the law provides for boards of superintendence in each commune, and for a board of guardians for every elementary school. In those parts of the country in which the communes are small the functions of the boards of superintendence and of guardians are fulfilled by one joint body.

The lowest units of this scheme of elementary administration are thus the boards of guardians. Observation of the development of school administrative bodies has shown that the boards of guardians are extremely important factors in the development of popular education, since they, being in direct contact with the everyday life of the schools, are most closely concerned with them. The boards are composed of representatives of parents and teachers, and the

head master is a member of the board. The chairman is appointed by the board of superintendence from amongst the parents of the children, but, in practice, the board of superintendence allows the parents to elect their representative, their choice always being approved. The Act of 1920 provides that the board of guardians consist of from three to five persons.

In schools attended by several hundred children it has been found desirable to create boards of guardians, i.e. delegates of the parents, for each class, and these elect the guardians for the whole school.

Collaboration with Parents

The boards collaborate with the head master and staff in general improvements in school, in the care of the children out of school, and in maintaining relations between school and parents. They exert influence, for example, on parents to ensure the children's regular attendance, and give assistance in necessitous cases.

In village schools the guardians allocate sums assigned for different purposes and control the expenditure of sums granted by the commune for current expenses. A common feature of both urban and rural boards of guardians is their untiring efforts to gain funds from communal treasuries for school needs. They also exert every effort to find

funds for requirements not provided for in the budget, or insufficiently endowed. An independent source of income exists in voluntary subscriptions by parents, and in the profits of theatrical performances, concerts, entertainments, etc.

The type and the extent of the activities of individual boards of guardians are as varied as are the conditions of the 25,000 schools in the Polish Republic. The prosperity of the local population, the general level of education, the number of years that the school has existed, local traditions, etc., all have their influence. Of greater importance is a judicious selection of its members, while what is most important is that teachers should possess a talent for interesting parents in the school. The teaching profession in Poland is coming more and more to understand that while a school can exist without guardians, it can achieve progress and fulfil its educational aims only in collaboration with the parents.

The activities of rural boards of guardians are generally connected with the material needs of the school, its building and equipment, but urban boards give most attention to the physical and moral care of the children.

Special Warsaw Committee

In Warsaw the boards of guardians have developed to such an extent as to necessitate the creation of a special committee of the school council to co-ordinate the activities of the individual boards. The committee has appointed and paid 80 instructors for Warsaw school recreation rooms, arranged 300 lectures for parents, dealing with questions of upbringing, citizenship and hygiene. The committee publishes a weekly for parents, *The World, the Home and the School*. Finally, the committee has commenced the purchase of clothing and footwear for children, and from them the boards can purchase. Parents very readily buy clothing from the boards, as the prices are about 50 per cent below current shop prices.

The supply of books and stationery is organised on a similar basis, and, like clothing, is free to necessitous children.

All schools provide supplementary meals, 50 per cent of the children receiving them free.

The committee arranged camps during the last summer vacation, at which over 3,500 children took part; 6,000 were present in the day camps.

Parental Co-operation with Secondary Schools

By J. Zebrowska

(*The M. Konopnicka State Secondary School for Girls, Warsaw*)

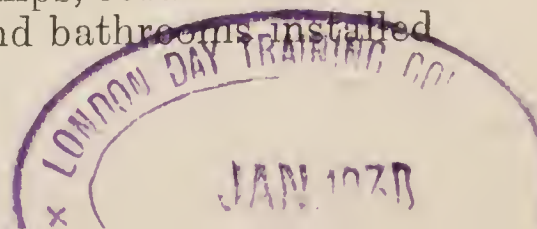
CO-OPERATION first began in 1905, and during the War gained in scope and intensity, while the downfall of alien domination in Poland was the signal for a still greater increase in activity. Some set up social welfare schools and used them as auxiliary factors in their work; others financed the building of schools and settlements. To-day there is hardly a school in the whole of the Republic that does not possess its own parents' association. A union of these associations also exists, duly recognised by the Ministry of Education.

Activities

To show the scope of the associations a report follows of one that co-operates with

a state secondary school in Warsaw. All members are parents or guardians of the pupils, each member paying a fixed monthly subscription. The parents' general meeting, at the opening of the school year, elects a board of management and an auditing committee. The board of management affords financial and moral aid to pupils, controls hygiene, and manages all its own business. The head mistress of the school, or her proxy, is present at all meetings.

Lunch is provided at prices so fixed that the committee in charge is financially self-supporting. Poorer pupils are exempt from payment, but all pupils must take the lunches provided. Summer camps, curative and holiday, were organised, and bathrooms installed



in the school. In 1924 an ultra-violet light irradiation room was equipped, the association paying the trained nurse in charge; girls threatened by consumption, also, are sent to sanatoria at its expense. Entertainments are arranged, and monthly subscriptions collected, for the raising of general funds.

Patron Societies

Patron societies were first introduced in 1924 to maintain close co-operation between parents and school, in order to give moral and material aid to the girls of the various forms. These societies are nominated by the directorate of the school for the period of one year, and consist of five members with a chairman, vice-chairman and secretary. The form mistress presides over the first meeting; thereafter the society meets generally twice monthly. No resolution affecting the form may be carried out without the approval of the school directorate and of the form mistress. The chairman is obliged to be present at the school once every week.

The chairmen of the various societies belong to a central union. At the beginning of the school year a union chairman is elected, who directs the work of the societies. Bi-monthly meetings are held, when reports of the work done are read, programmes for the future arranged, and information on the financial and other needs of all the forms is recorded.

The annual report of one of these societies shows that it maintained a library, the standard of the books being adapted to the curriculum of the form. Supplementary lessons in Latin, French, German and mathematics were organised, and in accordance with the request of some of the parents a course in sewing was given, in which eleven pupils took part.

A memorandum was filed with the parents' association regarding professional training schools, with the object of interesting the school authorities. Entertainments were organised, the proceeds of which went to the excursion fund, and to aid poor and ailing pupils. Thirty-five girls in the form were given psycho-technical examinations during the year.

School Excursions

By A. Janowski

(formerly Chief of Section, Ministry of Education, Warsaw)

TOURING was of considerable importance in pre-War Poland, for the Partitioning Powers (Austria excepted) excluded Polish history and geography from school teaching. These serious deficiencies were made up in the home, by public institutions, and by the self-education of children outside of school.

Classroom Dormitories

After Poland had regained her independence the Ministry of Education took up seriously the question of school excursions, and in consideration of their valuable educational influence energetically supports them either by subsidies or by creating facilities, such as the conversion of classrooms during vacation times into dormitories provided with beds and warm blankets. Twenty of

these dormitories were arranged in 1927, and a further 25 in 1928, making forty-five altogether. The exceptionally low cost (20 groszy (about 1½d.) per night) makes these available even to the poorest children. In 1927, 2,172 children made use of them, and 16,090 in 1928.

State Subsidies

Apart from these classroom dormitories, the Ministry approves the building of excursion shelters by public initiative. Subsidies are granted to touring clubs and societies, and to those educational and teachers' societies which build shelters in localities in which the Ministry has not yet done so. The construction of tourist shelters by county touring committees is also supported,

although touring and sport are not to be confused with the movement to encourage the Poles to acquire knowledge of their native land by means of trips and excursions: this has a much more profound significance and the excursions are conducted according to a carefully thought out and fixed plan. Beautiful localities are visited, in order to arouse in the children appreciation of the beauty of their native land; districts where natural wealth is to be found, in order to demonstrate the riches of the country; the more interesting relics of past art and culture are viewed, to create pride in the age-old power of the nation, and to connect the present with the past; ethnographically interesting localities are visited, in order to arouse a feeling of fraternity with the peoples in every part of the Republic; finally, scenes of great historical occurrences often form the goal of an excursion.

Preparation and Song

The participants must be properly prepared, and lectures are therefore delivered before starting out, in which all objects of special interest are discussed. Members of the excursion are advised to draw maps of the regions to be visited, and to study appropriate literature. Finally, the excursion has to elect its organisation, and select those responsible for the commissariat, for health and first-aid, for finance, and for keeping records. In this way the children are trained in collective public work.

The excursion group learn both community songs and recitations, so that when they go to some remote village they can delight both themselves and the villagers. The peasants greatly appreciate this feature of the excursions.

Various Duties

Those responsible for first-aid wear a red brassard on their arms and have a small portable medicine chest. The archivist makes notes of incidents, of the conditions of the journey, of the addresses of interested persons, of prices, etc. This record is deposited in the school office. A taste for collecting is also developed in the children, and every excursion enriches the school museums with new specimens. After their

return the children discuss the tour and make it the theme of oral and written composition. Older pupils are encouraged to prepare lectures for the benefit of their younger colleagues who have not yet taken active part.

Ideals

Each tour is in charge of one or more members of the staff, the principle of at least one teacher to every thirty pupils being adhered to. These, while leaving the children the greatest possible amount of liberty, bear constantly in mind that the excursion is a school of civic life, an act which educates the child according to the tenets of the National Education Committee of the end of the 18th century, memorable to all Poles, which recommend that the child should be so brought up that "he be himself happy, and others with him".

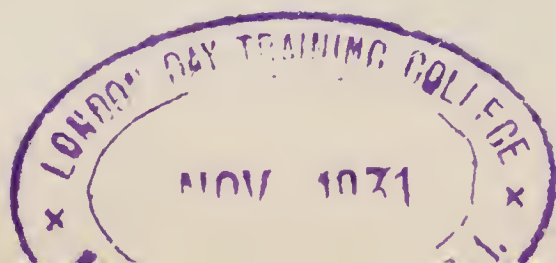
With this object in view, the handbook of dormitories issued every year by the Ministry of Education, apart from giving the addresses of the shelters and the regulations governing them, requires that the duties of a citizen and a patriot be remembered, recommending the following:

"Nature Protection." Nature lives. Do not unnecessarily destroy its life. Do not break boughs; do not pluck flowers; do not frighten birds or animals.

"Protection of Culture." At every step you meet with the work of human hands. Do not destroy it. Respect the work and the effort of people. Respect people. All are your brothers. They deserve your hearty friendship and your sincere respect.

"Ideals of the Excursion." You are taking part in this excursion not alone with the object of travelling so many miles: you should regard the beauty of your country, draw near to your brothers, admire the beauty of your historic relics. You are going in order the better to love your country."

Apart from such excursions as the above, others are, of course, arranged for special scientific purposes, in connection with different subjects of instruction, in particular in connection with natural history and geography; and for artistic purposes, to museums, etc., as well as for the purpose of sport.



ART and DRAMA

Artistic and Technical Education in Secondary Schools

By W. Przanowski

(Principal: Manual Work Institute, Warsaw)

"... the separation of art from the crafts and industries is the separation of the soul from the body—it is death."

NORWID (Polish poet, 1825-1883)

Not only in Poland, but also in the whole civilised world, the belief is strong that art is but the spice of life, that it is understandable by and available to the select few only, and in the first place to the wealthy. We desire in Poland energetically to counteract this harmful and deplorable prejudice by organised instruction in school. It is to be deplored that the error is so common that beauty can be found only among the collections in museums and art galleries. No work need be deprived of the element of beauty, and all can and should be combined with the idea of utility. Such a broader view of beauty ennobles, intensifies and enriches everyday life, ennobles and elevates handicraft, and, as Sorel justly stated, can even bring it up to the level of scientific work.

The Narrow View

The alien organisers of Polish schools before the Great War introduced drawing and painting on a fairly large scale; they considered, however, that painting is not one of the branches of plastic art but is to all intents and purposes its only form. As a result of this mistaken presentation, Polish youth left school possessing only a very one-sided idea of art. From the modern viewpoint, however, the elimination of manual work from schools would be considered a serious offence against true education.

The Polish Ministry of Education early understood that manual instruction in schools of general instruction would not only assist the development of artistic taste and technical ability, but would also greatly favour

the development of creative ability, independence and conscientiousness.

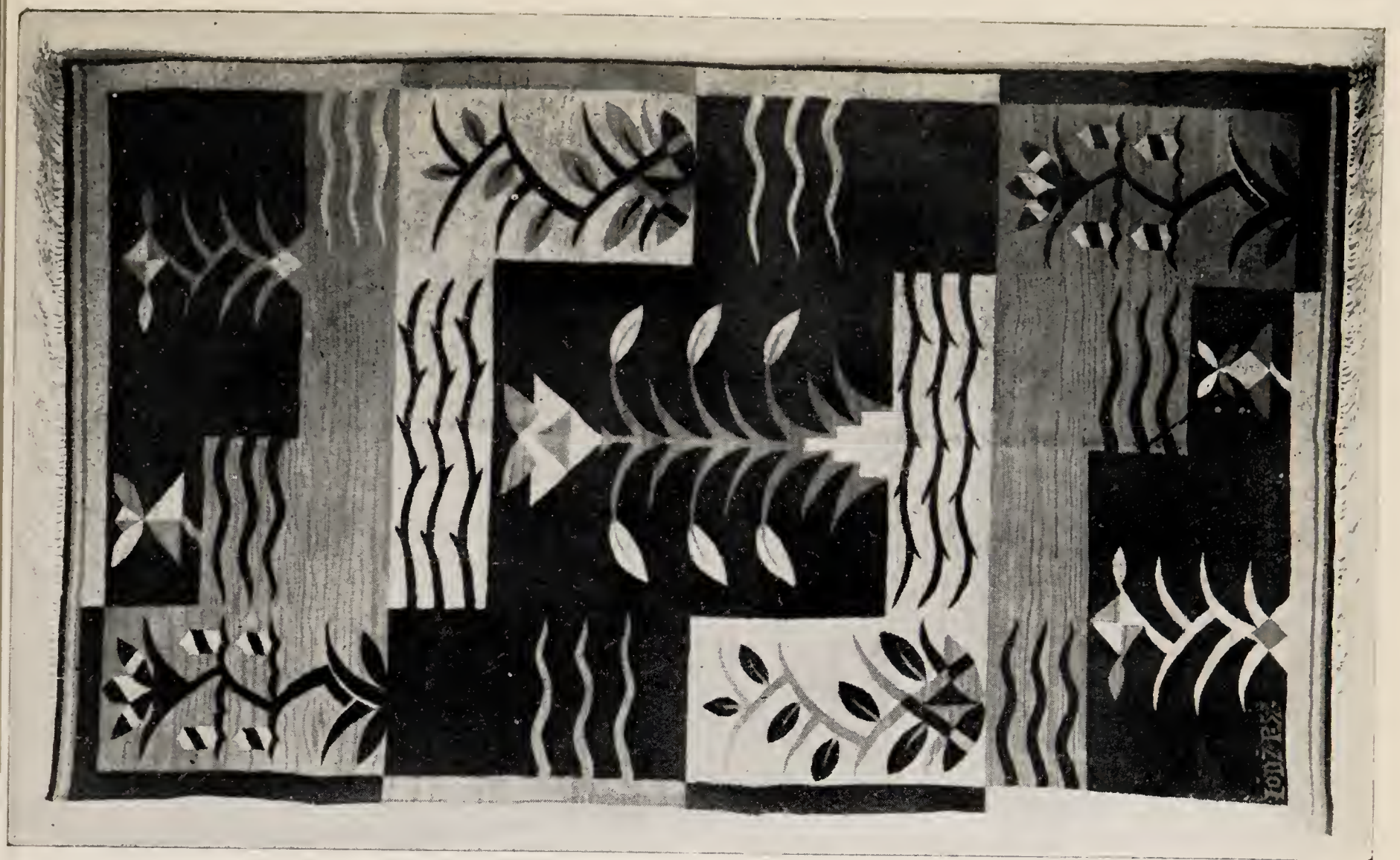
Manual Work and Drawing

Instruction in manual work was consequently introduced into nearly all the classes in schools of general instruction. In the lower classes instruction is combined with all other subjects, while from the third class up it is taught as a separate subject supplementary to drawing.

The Ministry believes that instruction in these two subjects will attain its object only when it is conducted seriously and methodically, and provided that the work produced by the pupils during the lessons is executed conscientiously and in accordance with the requirements of good technique and craftsmanship. Manual instruction can help to develop the mind generally and aesthetically only if conducted in this manner, furnishing at the same time a certain fund of practical knowledge of technique and handicraft, which is indispensable to every man whatever his future occupation.

Wider Application of Manual Work

It must not, however, be supposed that the Ministry does not also encourage the application of manual work during instruction in other subjects, in particular in those of the mathematics-science group. On the contrary, such a combination is considered to be essential, and the schools are required to apply this method; it is, however, emphasized that this system can yield favourable results only when the pupils have learned during special lessons properly to use their tools and rationally to work up and combine the basic materials available. The analogy between instruction in manual work and in drawing very well illustrates this. The pupils have to draw in connection with



Carpet Designs

OUT-OF-DOOR ACTIVITIES



GARDENING : Elementary School No. 29, Warsaw



NATURE STUDY : A Practical Surveying Lesson

the study of various subjects. but at the same time learn drawing technically as a separate subject.

The Ministry, basing its standpoint on the above considerations, is exercising every effort to bring the artistic and technical teaching in schools of general instruction to the highest possible level. Two hours weekly are devoted to drawing in all classes in elementary and in the mathematics-science group of secondary schools, while manual work is taught in the same grades of schools from two to four hours weekly, with the exception of the highest two forms of secondary schools. In the classical and modern types of secondary schools manual work and drawing are taught only in the three lower forms, but can be taken as supplementary subjects in the higher forms.

Drawing and Crafts

Drawing masters learn their future professions at academies of fine arts, and, in addition to drawing, study some craft during two years for ten hours a week. Candidates wishing to specialise in manual work take a two-year course at the handicraft institute

and devote twelve hours weekly to the study of drawing and of its technique. The Ministry tends towards the gradual *rapprochement* of these subjects, and even wherever possible entrusts the instruction of the two to a single teacher.

A manual work programme has been prepared in great detail, but the schools are left free to choose the type of work most suitable to them. Schools may select any of the following subjects: cardboard work, book-binding, basket-work, elementary wood-work, advanced carpentry, wire and repoussé work, metal work, tailoring and cutting. The programme recommends that every pupil should acquire a fairly thorough knowledge of two handicrafts, one of which, in the case of girls, must be dressmaking. It is further recommended that the articles made should be as closely connected as possible with the school and home life of the children. Much inspiration for creative work is found in the *motifs* of Polish peasant art. The coloured drawings reproduced in this issue are specimens of work done under the influence of peasant customs, costume and household articles.

Music Teaching in State Schools

By A. Borowa

(*Teacher of Music*)

EDUCATION in post-War Poland has, in accordance with its traditions of pre-Partition times, taken the teaching of music seriously. By music, the authorities have understood music for all, taught in every type of school of general instruction, in all their classes. The first curricula made music lessons compulsory in every class of elementary and secondary schools and teachers' training colleges, assigning from one to four hours weekly to this purpose, apart from the time devoted to choirs and orchestras.

Music a Necessity

According to the wording of the curriculum, the object of teaching music is to develop a love of music, particularly of song, to

augment aesthetic culture, to enrich the memory with a store of beautiful poetical and musical compositions, to train children in choral singing and in orchestral playing, and thus to make music one of the chief necessities of every citizen.

Every school of general instruction has to prepare future active members of choirs and orchestras, and future audiences for good concert and opera music. The means which lead to this end are: compulsory singing lessons (the tonic Sol-fa and the principles of music) in all schools, compulsory violin lessons (in teachers' training colleges) and voluntary popular choirs and orchestras. Children learn to listen to music either in the classroom during music lessons or in

concert halls, where special programmes are given for children. Musical instruction is thus fairly broad, and the methods used for the formation of taste very varied.

Methods and Curriculum

Apart from experiments in Polish individualistic methods, often very interesting but not yet quite defined, methods elaborated in other countries, e.g. France, Switzerland (Jacques-Dalcroze), Germany (Battke, Jöde) and England (certain details of the tonic Sol-fa), have been applied in the schools.

The curriculum embraces the uniform training of the sense of rhythm and sound, the development of the ear and of the voice, and training in technique. The curriculum further recommends that a Polish repertoire, in which folk-lore is specially considered, be used exclusively in elementary schools, and predominatingly in secondary schools and teachers' training colleges.

There are many books dealing with instruction in music, while the number of song books is exceptionally great. Books dealing with orchestral work are not as numerous, but are very carefully selected, and written in a readable manner. Music teachers have their monthly publication, *Music in the School*, which publishes chiefly

papers dealing with methods of instruction.

Apart from longer or shorter courses for teachers (two-year, twelve-month, six- and four-week vacation courses) several state conservatories of music conduct three-year courses for music-teachers, who are there trained for work in schools of general instruction.

The Festival of Song

One day every year is devoted in these schools to a "Festival of Song", which takes place in May or June in all villages, towns and cities. The children from Standard V up render songs in unison, and choirs take part individually and in competition.

The National Anthem, "Bogurodzica" ("Mother of God"), an old song set to a Gregorian chant, and the "School Children's Motto", are included every year in the programme. Other specially chosen songs, taken from the children's song books, are also rendered. The collective programme is given by the children, some 2,000 in number, after one rehearsal, each song being directed by a different choir-leader. The Festival, which is broadcast, affords a very good illustration of the high level of vocal culture and artistic taste in Polish schools.

The School Theatre at The Polish National Exhibition

By Stefan Papée

(*The Marcinkowski State Secondary School for Boys, Poznan*)

IN the Polish National Exhibition at Poznan a school theatre was maintained which gave 84 performances by 32 regional school dramatic societies and 47 school societies. These performances, witnessed by over 25,000 school children, were given by members of elementary schools, secondary schools, teachers' training colleges and technical schools.

Choice of Troupes

The Ministry of Education granted the funds necessary for the construction of a stage, which was lavishly equipped for lighting effects, and with fundamental scenery.

The costumes needed, special stage properties and additional appropriate scenery were furnished by the societies performing. Before the actual public performances, public rehearsals were held at various provincial centres, a delegate of the theatre being present to judge the standard attained by every group. Thus only such troupes which could assure the requisite level of artistic production performed at Poznan. A considerable number of the performances, especially those of classical and regional folk-lore, were almost sensational in their interest and success, so marked were they by freshness and originality.

Types of Plays

The plays fell under four main headings: classical-literary, modern literary, regional folk-lore, and children's. According to a computation, the school theatre produced only 40 per cent of the plays submitted for performance. This speaks well for the great interest taken in the idea of theatres in the various school inspectorates of Poland, and is also an indication of the difficulties that still have to be overcome before the ambitions of the schools can be successfully realised.

Amongst the classical pieces presented were fragments of the following: Homer's "Iliad", the "Antigone" of Sophocles, "Helen" and "Rhesus" of Euripides, "The Birds" of Aristophanes, and "The Brothers" of Terentius. The performance of "Antigone" was particularly well staged and acted, with appropriate musical accompaniment and beautiful choral singing, full of pathos. The performances of "Helen" and "The Birds" were enhanced by ballets, effectively adapted to the spirit of the plays in question.

The more modern literary group was arranged to exclude plays performed by the professional stage. It included revivals of several morality plays once acted by students during the 17th century and almost forgotten to-day; the ballads and songs of such writers as Mickiewicz were successfully produced, as were also fragments of Polish epics and classics written by such authors as Sienkiewicz and others. Further, not only were the works of contemporary poets, ignored by the professional stage, produced, but also those of even young writers still at school; such sketches as "Towards the Future" and "Faith we Need" are full of a sincere expression of youthful ideals and imagination.

The most popular success was won by the regional theatre, which became a colourful, interesting and instructive object-lesson depicting the wealth and charm of Polish folk-lore, customs and habits. Many peasant wedding scenes were presented, as they permitted the inclusion of melodious songs, stirring dances, impressive ceremonies and revelry. The representation of so many wedding scenes might be considered tiresome, since very many points of similarity must of necessity have existed; in reality, however, this was not so, and the depicting

of the ceremonies in the various divisions of Poland enabled many points of difference to be noted, not only in dress, songs, dances, etc., but also in the characters so vividly presented: Cracovian, Kurpian, Wolynian, Wilno peasants and Podhalian mountaineers.

Peasant Scenes

Various versions of peasant harvest festivals and songs were also given. The scenic setting was particularly interesting and it was in this domain that the young artists found the widest scope for the expression of their creative originality.

During the period under review a certain characteristic type of setting was evident, based on the scheme of that pioneer of school theatres, Professor Komarnicki, the author of a valuable work of guidance for the collective efforts of schools, to assure that school theatricals serve their artistic and educational purposes properly.

The fourth section of the school theatre repertoire, that covering performances by young children, very successfully produced stage versions of nursery rhymes, placing most emphasis on their gaiety and colour, and on the intermingling of songs and dances with the spoken text.

A Permanent School Theatre

The excellent reception afforded the school theatre at the Exhibition by other children, the teaching profession, and regular theatre-goers, has induced the school authorities to create out of this incidental venture a permanent school theatre having its seat at Poznan. This will serve in the first place the school area in which it is situated, but will also act as an experimental centre for the various regional school theatres planned. The school theatre turned out to be an excellent supplement to that part of the Exhibition which depicted school life and organisation in Poland. It also afforded eloquent proof of the development and advance made in the aesthetic education of the younger generation, furnishing striking proof of the contact attained by the youth of the country with the poetry and charm of Polish life. This probably explains how it was that one could sense in so marked a degree, when visiting the school theatre, the great vitality and youthful enthusiasm inspiring the young artists.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

School Hygiene and Physical Training

By Dr. S. Kopczynski

(Chief Inspector of School Hygiene, Ministry of Education, Warsaw)

THE necessity for the proper organisation of physical training in the schools of Poland is almost traditional. It was demanded by the Committee for National Education during the 18th century, was theoretically justified by J. Sniadecki, a professor of Wilno University and a physiologist known all over Europe at the beginning of the 19th century, and was confirmed by the teaching profession during the Congress of 1919, when the new school organisation of Poland was making its first enactments. The realisation of these demands took place gradually during the last decade, as the means and resources of the nation permitted.

Physical Training

In addition to obligatory afternoon open-air games and sports, all elementary and secondary schools and teachers' training colleges now devote six half-hour or three one-hour periods weekly to physical training and instruction.

A special fund is allocated for procuring playing fields, purchasing of games and sports equipment, teaching of swimming and rowing, aiding poorer children to take part in excursions, and erecting day and night shelters for school excursion parties in fifty places. A certain part of the games and sports fund is set aside for the purchase of equipment which is lent out to poorer children.

Almost all the newer state-owned school buildings possess gymnasiums. Of these, 25 per cent already are fully equipped, 50 per cent are partly equipped, while the remaining 25 per cent have at the moment no equipment. While ten years ago it was exceptional for children to drill and exercise in gym dress, to-day over half the entire number do so. A decree issued by the Ministry of Education in 1922 made playing fields essential for all schools.

Among games the most popular are basketball and net-ball. Sports, i.e. excursions

swimming, rowing, cycling, skating, ski-ing, tennis, are pursued by the pupils with growing enthusiasm. Swimming and rowing are especially favoured: four schools have their own swimming-pools, five boat-houses are in operation with about 200 boats, excluding those owned by university rowing clubs. In addition to the school swimming-pools, many swimming-baths have been opened or are in process of construction by Polish city and town councils, and these are available for the use of school children.

During the school year 1926-27 the Ministry expended on physical training the sum of 139,800 zlotys (about £3,250), while in 1929-30 the corresponding figure was 297,000 zlotys (about £7,000); this expenditure is exclusive of subsidies given by various municipalities for the use of the elementary schools.

Training of Instructors

Much attention is paid to the training of instructors in physical culture. In 1919 about 30 per cent of the school gymnasiums in Poland possessed no instructors, and of those engaged in instruction about 50 per cent did not possess the necessary qualifications. This shortcoming was remedied by the organisation of various courses in physical training, at first lasting twelve months, but later also extended to two years. Over 800 instructors, forty per cent of whom were women, were trained at these courses. During the current year a Central Institute of Physical Training will be opened in the vicinity of Warsaw; this institution has been built at a cost of nearly 10,000,000 zlotys (about £232,600), and has been created in order to train instructors for schools, for the army, and for sports clubs.

In schools the present state and the future development of physical training are under the care of the school directorate, the school doctor and the physical training instructors, and also of school hygiene and physical cul-

ture inspectors co-operating with special gymnastic instructors who visit the schools periodically. The whole of this branch of education is under the control and care of the chief inspector of physical training attached to the Ministry of Education. Eleven remedial exercise consultation centres have been established over the area of the Republic.

Hygiene and the School Doctor

With regard to hygiene, it is considered that its most important aspect is that of school buildings. All the modern buildings erected in Poland answer every requirement of hygiene as regards lighting, ventilation, rooms for special studies, rest rooms, lavatories, shower-baths, etc. A model desk has been designed, and all old desks are now being replaced by this new type.

The provision of permanent medical supervision in schools is by no means a recent innovation in Poland; as far back as the year 1805 a school doctor was appointed to the Krzemieniec Lyceum, this being the first appointment of its kind in Europe. The revival of this tradition was one of the first cares of the resurrected Polish state, so that, by 1920, 39 per cent of the secondary schools and 21 per cent of the teacher training colleges already had permanent medical supervision. To-day 92 per cent of the secondary schools, almost all the governmental and 90 per cent of the private teacher training colleges have it. Out of a total of 3,600,000 elementary school children in Poland close on a million benefit from permanent medical supervision. The total number of school doctors in Poland amounts to over 1,000.

With the object of spreading the ideals of hygiene among children the school doctors are, in addition to affording medical care and attention, required to arrange talks and lectures and give systematic teaching in the appropriate classes. Specially organised supplementary courses are conducted for teachers.

The work of medical supervision in schools includes not only the detection of physical deficiencies and irregularities in children, but also the earliest possible removal of these conditions in special clinics and school sub-clinics.

The School Dentist

One of the most urgent needs of the schools is that of organised dental aid, for nearly 85 per cent of the children have been found to be affected with dental caries. The care of teeth in schools is a fairly new departure, as in 1918 the only place in Poland where aid was given was the city of Cracow, the municipality of which had organised a special dental aid service for school children. To-day 40 per cent of the state secondary schools and 70 per cent of the state teacher training colleges have their own dentists and surgeries on the school premises. Altogether 170 private and state schools of the above types possess dental surgeries. In the public elementary schools portable dental cabinets are used.

Apart from this, the children, particularly those attending state elementary schools, benefit greatly from the dental services of the health insurance boards, of hospitals and of health centres, the numbers of which in Poland are steadily increasing.

Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign

Tuberculosis is combated in the schools in a very vigorous manner. In addition to the 158 special anti-tuberculosis centres existing in Poland, children who are threatened or attacked by this disease are sent free of charge every year to summer camps; 17,000 children benefited by this plan in 1923 and 60,000 in 1927. The cost of arranging the summer camps amounted to 4,000,000 zlotys (about £93,000) in 1927; of this amount only 8 per cent was covered by the state, the remainder being furnished by municipalities and social welfare institutions. In addition, there exist all the year round sanatorium schools for children in various health resorts and spas in Poland, mostly in the mountains and at the seaside, where they can regain their health and at the same time keep up their studies.

From 10—15 per cent of the children receive supplementary meals, especially during the winter months, in order to increase resistance against disease. This service is organised by the parents' associations co-operating with individual schools, in many cases assisted by urban or rural borough councils.

The Boy Scout and Girl Guide Movement

By S. Sedlacek

THE first patrols and troops of Boy Scouts in Poland were formed spontaneously in the autumn of 1910, in Warsaw and at Lwów. The systematic development of the movement dates from the spring of 1911, when Andrew Malkowski and George Grodynski organised the first scoutmasters' course at the Sokol Athletic Club in Lwów. After this course came the opening of the Polish Boy Scout Headquarters at Lwów, and the issue of the scouting periodical, *Skaut*. At the same time Malkowski published his first handbook, entitled, *Scouting as an Educational Method*. From its very inception the movement embraced the whole of Poland, in spite of its partition between Austria, Germany and Russia; its supreme authority remained the Headquarters at Lwów. The troop sent to the Birmingham Jamboree in 1913 was recognised as being representative of the whole of Poland, while the attitude adopted by the Chief Scout towards this troop, as well as the decoration of Malkowski with the Medal of Merit, indicated that Polish scouts were recognised as belonging to the Baden-Powell organisation. By 1912 the movement possessed about 4,000 members, and over 1,000 were present at the all-Polish Jamboree in 1913. During the Great War the movement still lived and played an important part in the struggle for Polish independence.

Formation of Association

In 1918, during the same November days as those which saw the resurrection of the independent Polish state, the Boy Scout and Girl Guide Association, representing the whole of Poland, was formed. The first all-Polish census of 1920 showed the existence of 20,410 scouts and of 8,456 guides. The development of scouting in post-War Poland was interrupted by the Bolshevik invasion, when the older scouts and scoutmasters went to the front and the younger boys and girls gave auxiliary service. Many distinguished scouts fell on the field of battle before peace was restored, and it was not until 1921 that normal times again supervened. Work now began on a wider scale—the number of courses constantly increased, and the number of camps and excursions, as well as the

number of those taking part, grew from year to year, attaining in 1928 the figure of 350 scout camps with 8,151 scouts, who spent an aggregate number of 203,149 days in these camps, and 192 guide camps with 2,993 guides and a total of 65,101 days in camp. Apart from courses, the National Jamborees of 1924, 1928 and 1929 contributed greatly to the growth of the movement. The Jamboree of 1924 was held in Warsaw for boys (3,500 participants), and on the outskirts of Warsaw for girls (800 participants). In 1928 a guide Jamboree was held near Warsaw, 1,000 girls taking part in this, while in 1929 the Second National Jamboree was held at Poznan (6,700 participants).

Visits Abroad

Polish scouting was, as has been mentioned, first represented abroad at Birmingham in 1913, when the Polish troop had the honour of being presented to H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught and to the Chief Scout, General Sir Robert Baden-Powell. Poland was represented at the first World Jamboree by only one wolf-cub, all his elder brethren being then engaged in stemming the Bolshevik invasion; the Chief Scout sent them a hearty message of encouragement. One hundred and twenty-eight Poles were present at the Copenhagen Jamboree of 1924, Poland gaining at this meeting a fifth place in the general classification of the competitions, being classified after America, England, Hungary and Norway. In many of the individual contests the Polish troop occupied an even higher place, being first, together with Norway, in the scouting competition, second in folk-dancing, third in general turn-out, in camping, in camp-fire entertainments, and in 24-hour hiking. In 1929 there were 437 Poles at the huge international camp at Arrow Park, who brought back with them the most cordial memories of the hospitality of their English hosts, and of their intercourse with scouts of over two score nations. The greatest moment for them was, however, the visit of the Chief Scout. They were also honoured by the visit of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, who expressed a very favourable opinion of the Polish camp, as well as of the

regional theatrical entertainment given on the previous day in the camp theatre.

Poles have also taken part in international scouting conferences, beginning with that in Paris in 1922, where Dr. Eugene Piasecki, a professor of Poznan University and the author of an excellent hand-book published in 1912 (*Scouting in Poland*) headed our delegation.

National Adaptation

The distinguishing features of Polish scouting (called in Polish *harcerstwo*, from an old Polish word "harcerz", meaning a knight) are bravery, initiative and loyalty. The movement is conducted along the lines indicated by Baden-Powell, adapted to national conditions and requirements, and with a proper consideration of the rich storehouse of Polish culture. Polish scouting possesses its own achievements in educational methods. Thus we may mention the selection by the different troops of some great national hero as their patron, whose life the members of the troop study and whose virtues they try to imitate.

Camping has developed exceptionally well, in view of the primitive conditions of the great Polish forests and deserted mountain regions. Many troops have gained an exceptionally thorough knowledge of their native land, acquired during their treks over the

whole country during the summer months, and during recent years aquatic sports and river travel have developed greatly, as was illustrated by the voyage of twelve scouts from Poznan to Copenhagen by sailing-boat to the Sea Scout Rally of 1927, as well as by the award of first place to a Polish troop in the Sea Scout competitions held in Hungary in 1929. During the past few years Polish scouts have evinced great interest in national traditions, customs and costumes, which they study and try to introduce into their scouting life. We have in Poland particularly wide experience in school troops, especially in secondary schools, in which scouting has from its very beginning developed exceptionally well. The statistics for 1929 show that Poland possess over 31,000 boy scouts and over 19,000 girl guides.

State Support

Special secretariats have been formed in the Ministry of Education for the Boy Scout and Girl Guide movements, and this ministry, as well as the Government Bureau of Physical Training, gives considerable assistance in the organisation of summer camps. The President of the Polish Republic, as well as past chiefs of the state, are amongst the patrons of the Polish Boy Scout and Girl Guide Association.

TYPES OF SCHOOLS

Nursery School Education

By J. Hellmann

(General Inspector, Ministry of Education, Warsaw)

NURSERY schools in Poland are for children from four to seven years, and are not yet numerous enough to meet requirements. In 1928 the number of schools was 1,430, and of children attending them, 83,912.

The majority of nursery schools are maintained by local government bodies, public institutions or private persons. The state educational authorities have only the right of exercising general control and inspection, and have opened nursery school teachers' training colleges.

The modern methods used take into account the individuality of a child, his impulses, interests and physical strength, and aim at the creation of conditions adapted to the production of an individual who will take a creative part in community life. The schools possess appropriate apparatus for the exercising of the senses and for the practising of speech, skills and number,

benches and tools for manual work, and apparatus for gymnastics, games and sports.

Very great emphasis is placed on physical training, personal hygiene, gymnastics, diet, open-air games and medical examination, as well as on singing, dancing, music, eurythmics and modelling.

There are now seven government nursery school teachers' training colleges, of which that in Warsaw, taken over by the state in 1919, affords a three-year course of study. The seven private training colleges will in their development follow the lead of the state colleges. The curriculum and methods are intended to produce an 'active' type of citizen, whose general knowledge, special talents and inclinations specially fit her for the work. Girls who have completed seven classes of an elementary school are accepted after passing an examination in health and general and special abilities.

The J. Bem Elementary School, Warsaw

By H. Maciejesski and H. Ladosz

(Members of the staff)

THIS school was founded in 1927 to provide elementary education in a working-class district on the outskirts of Warsaw. There are thirteen classes attended by about 550 children. The staff consists of a head master, thirteen form masters, two domestic art mistresses, a priest and his assistant, a doctor, a dentist, and a specialist in hygiene.

The work can therefore be allocated according to the special capacities or qualifications of the teachers. The Dalton plan is applied to natural history, for the study of which we have an exceptionally good

collection of material. Apart from this, we are experimenting in the substitution of class choral speaking for the ordinary study of poetry. Other subjects are taught according to the old methods of instruction.

Parent Co-operation

Realising that the efficiency of a school keeps pace with the cultural level of the pupils, we try to raise the level by co-operation with the parents and by direct influence on the child. Special supplementary courses for parents have been organised, those completing them receiving official

EXCURSIONS



In the Tatra Mountains



On the Baltic Sea

DRAMA



Cracovian Wedding Scene



Folk-lore Scene

diplomas. We maintain close contact with the parents by means of frequent meetings, at which are discussed such points as the following: regular and punctual attendance; cleanliness and neatness of clothes, shoes, books, gymnastic dress; compulsory wearing of slippers at school; personal cleanliness and purity of speech; relations between home and school; home work; correspondence with parents (special diaries); theatrical performances, cinematograph displays, concerts, etc.

The parents' association, apart from monthly lectures on education and æsthetics, assists in providing additional meals for the children, and helps to organise school enterprises and entertainments. The board of the association further arranges for the collection of voluntary subscriptions, which, together with the proceeds of those concerts to which admission is charged, and the subsidies granted by various institutions, maintain in the school a number of organisations, the object of which is to raise the cultural level of the children. Before reviewing these organisations we might mention that they are one of three means to this end. The other two are, the school rules and events such as excursions, concerts and celebrations.

Nature Study and Co-operative Store

The most important cultural factors are, however, the numerous organisations, some of which have been in existence for over ten years. There is a nature study society (1927) which cares for and cultivates specimens, reads periodicals, and reads and writes essays. The members are responsible for the care of the large number of plants and flowers grown in the school.

The co-operative store (of which teachers are members) teaches the fundamental principles of book-keeping and of co-operation. Its officials are at the same time members of its board of management, on which the boys and girls of Standards VI and VII sit in turn. The profits are used partly to pay dividends, partly for reserve capital, and partly for cultural purposes. This society was established in 1921.

Library and Choir

The school library, possessing 2,000 volumes, was founded in 1923. All pupils

from Standard II up belong to this library, and every child is required, after having read a book, to criticise it in a special notebook. The work of the library is carried out by the pupils themselves under the supervision of a mistress. In conjunction with it is a reading-room, the conditions of which are most favourable for encouraging a love of reading, and which is well supplied with games of every description.

A school choir was founded in 1918, and has from 64 to 120 members. It exerts a very good influence on the children, who take part in outside concerts and competitions. There is also a troop of girl guides who follow the usual activities.

A mid-morning lunch of milk and bread is provided at a very low cost, and the health of the children is further fostered by baths which have been installed in the school.

Class Choral Speaking and Theatrical Societies

In conclusion we should like to make further mention of class choral speaking. Choral speaking was at first conducted as an experiment after school hours, but is now taken as a class subject in place of the ordinary learning of poetry. The most important and interesting features of drama as far as education is concerned are, in our opinion, team work (a school is *par excellence* a team organisation), and diction. The latter is exceptionally important, as its neglect is a great, although apparently unrecognised, hindrance in practically every branch of human endeavour. In state elementary schools the class teaching of choral speaking makes it available to every child. A child in a crowd speaks incomparably more animatedly, sincerely, and boldly. Even the shyest child can then express himself. In this way that characteristic feature of ordinary poetry lessons, the performing of two or three of the most gifted pupils before the silent, unparticipating majority of the class, is done away with.

A relevant question is that of theatrical societies for adolescents and children. These societies should, we think, be conducted with the co-operation of professional actors and teachers, as only then can they properly play their part in education.

The Orzeszkowa Teachers' Training College, Warsaw

By W. Dzierzbicka

(*Principal*)

IN 1906 an educational association, "Polska Macierz Szkolna," was founded, its sphere of activities before long embracing the whole country, and the public began, under its aegis, to organise Polish schools. Some members of the teaching profession of Warsaw then raised the question of creating a teachers' training college for women, to supply these new schools with properly qualified teachers, able successfully to defend Polish culture. These persons formed a branch of the Polska Macierz Szkolna, and, after protracted efforts, the chairman of the branch (owner and head mistress of a private girls' secondary school in Warsaw) received permission from the Russian authorities to conduct such a college. The board of management of the Macierz Szkolna assigned a certain sum of money yearly for its upkeep, and suggested that it should be called after E. Orzeszkowa, a well-known Polish authoress and patriot.

Russian Domination

The college at first conducted two-year courses (the period fixed by the Russian authorities), and accepted pupils who had completed four forms at a secondary school. In 1908 the Russian government, alarmed at the college's rapid development, dissolved the Polska Macierz Szkolna. The founders, however, resolved to do their utmost to save it, and a branch of the Macierz Szkolna began to work in secret. The collection of funds proceeded as before, and the teaching profession assigned a proportion of their salaries.

At the beginning of 1909 the college opened its own practice school, and extended its course to three years, the third year being conducted secretly. The curriculum imposed by the Russian authorities allotted many hours to the study of the Russian language, geography and history. These subjects were taught in Russian by Russians; Polish history and geography were not included in the curriculum at all, and the number of hours devoted to the Polish language was very

small. These Polish subjects were taught during hours officially figuring in the timetable as drawing, needlework and hand-writing lessons.

The Aftermath of the War

The college continued its work under these conditions until the outbreak of the War, when the hopes raised by the War spoke eloquently in favour of maintaining every existing cultural centre in Poland. The position was not easy, for rising hopes were offset by the hard reality of the numerous Russian subjects, and Russian teachers were always and everywhere in evidence. But a new epoch commenced with the final departure of the Russians. The first step was to rid the curriculum of all Russian subjects; the course of study was next extended by another year, and the curriculum was reconstructed.

Polish State Control

In 1918 the college was taken over by the state, and transferred to the building it now occupies. During the first period of its existence as a government institution, the efforts of the teaching staff were directed chiefly towards work on methods and the curriculum. The duration of the course was extended to five years, but no government curriculum had so far been issued. The teaching staff commenced work on the curricula, on the practical organisation of practice schools, and with this, on the investigation of the best methods for the training of pupil-teachers. This work was undertaken in the conviction that the necessary creative effort would not only promote the development of the college, but would also further serve as material for the evolution of a teachers' training system in Poland. The college was during this period very frequently visited by the principals and the teachers of newly founded training colleges, and a part of its staff was called upon to plan a curriculum. This was issued by the Ministry of Education in 1921.

Methods and Morals

The efforts of the staff were directed chiefly to work on methods of teaching and on the moral education of the girls. In 1921 the pupils organised a self-governing body, which to a large extent took over the social side of college life. This organisation conducts the college shop and bank, collects and administers excursion funds, and has created an excursion and touring club for the purpose of acquainting its members with the history, geography and conditions of their native land, and dramatic, athletic and nature protection societies. A number of college celebrations take place which strengthen bonds between teachers and pupils, as well as between the pupils themselves. Thus it has become a custom to arrange at the beginning of the school year a one-day excursion for the girls of all forms, so that the old may meet the new pupils. A Christmas party is arranged every year by the parents' association, in collaboration with the fifth-year girls, for the pupils of lower forms, a Christmas Eve party is given by the fifth-year students to the staff, etc. The college possesses its own girl guide troop, as well as an old students' club; the latter, with the help of the parents' association, provides mid-day lunches, and relieves necessitous pupils.

Individual Work

The work of the teaching staff on didactics had as its object to find methods which would allow of the greatest degree of independence on the part of the pupil, who would thus learn to gain knowledge for herself, both from life and from books. During its short period of existence as a Polish public institution, the college has devoted ten days yearly to independent work based entirely on the girls' interests, and this custom has been maintained since the college was taken over by the state. The girls generally selected their own subjects, the staff confining itself to facilitating the collection of material and to assisting the pupils in planning their work

and in writing their papers. These short periods of independent work could not, of course, solve the problems of methods generally, and during the school year 1927-28 the pedagogic council elaborated and submitted to the Ministry a scheme for the organisation of instruction in the college, based on the Dalton Plan, and adapted to the needs of the college. This scheme was approved by the Ministry, and work was commenced the following year.

Modifications

The period of individual work lasts, however, only three weeks, the work of the fourth week being conducted on ordinary lines. During that week the pupils, together with the teacher, extend, supplement and effect a synthesis of the work of the three-week period, reports are made to the class on the work accomplished by individual groups, and the programme of work for the following three-week period is arranged. Occasionally teachers deliver one or more lectures during such a week, and a teacher has the power, after consulting with the head mistress, to give lessons during the period usually allotted to individual work, should she consider this to be necessary.

The first-year girls are gradually introduced to the system of individual work, whilst fifth-year students work individually only four times weekly, owing to the large amount of time they have to devote to practical work. The laboratories and workrooms are fairly well equipped with apparatus, books, specimens and pictures. The library contains nearly 7,000 volumes, four, six, and even ten copies of many works being on the shelves.

The present stage of organisation is considered merely as a starting-point for further development, and it is felt that the elaboration of a system completely adapted to Polish psychology and to Polish conditions of life is essential.

The Bialystok State Teachers' Training College

By A. Zubelewicz

(*Inspector of Training Colleges*)

BIALYSTOK—to-day an important industrial centre—was once the seat of one of the richest aristocratic families of Poland. With the vicissitudes of time the magnificent palace and park eventually came into the possession of the Russian Imperial family. The process of russification expressed itself here in the founding by one of the Emperesses of Russia of an academy for young ladies of the aristocracy and gentry. The Polish gentry, impoverished as a result of political reverses, were allowed to place their daughters in the Academy entirely free of charge. Materially, the pupils benefited greatly from this school, which, however, systematically tended to the eradication of all national feelings.

The Ravages of War

At the outbreak of the Great War the Russian authorities were forced to evacuate Bialystok, and took away with them the entire equipment of the Academy. Thus when, in 1919, the first group of Polish pupils was led into the Institute by Polish teachers, only bare walls marred by the ravages of war were found.

It is for this reason that the present school, the State Teachers' Training College, can be said to have been built up from the beginning. The only resources available were those of the energy and enthusiasm of young hands and hearts. The State could not at first provide all that was required, and the pupils therefore in their free time from studies in temporary classrooms, carried bricks, cultivated the gardens, and themselves rebuilt one of the largest educational buildings in Poland. A teacher had at that time to be not only a teacher, but also a bricklayer, a joiner, and a gardener all in one.

We are now celebrating the tenth anniversary of the school's foundation. The difficult period of commencement has passed, and now the future generation of elementary school teachers, both young men and women, study in bright, flower-decked classrooms. The pupils, drawn from the poorer classes of towns and villages,

enter at the age of fourteen. The first three years of study are devoted to general subjects, and the last two are spent in specialisation in future professions. In this, invaluable service is rendered by the elementary school conducted in conjunction with the college, termed a practice school, and serving as a place in which the pupil-teachers are enabled to acquire practice in teaching.

Individual Work

Pupils have ample opportunity for individual work in the school, which possesses appropriately equipped science laboratories and crafts rooms. The biological laboratory is supplemented by the school botanical gardens, in which all work is done by the pupils themselves. The school buildings are favourable to the installation of all types of accessories to physical training, so that gymnastic exercises can take place in the open air even in winter. Tennis courts, net- and basket-ball fields, sleigh and ski runs, and an ice skating-rink are all accommodated in the grounds of the college. Boys and girls study in different classrooms, but take part together in all sides of the social life, and all pupils are members of the same co-operative society "Bratnia Pomoc" (Fraternal Aid Society). This is an autonomous organisation to prepare for community life, and its work is classified under self-government, domestic and financial matters, social welfare, culture and education, and art.

Self-government

The self-governing department is the fundamental unit of the society. Each class constitutes a commune, the members of which elect their authorities. These authorities are entrusted with the organisation of the affairs of their class, and with the care of their respective classrooms, for the maintenance of order in which they are entirely responsible. The chairmen of the various councils meet from time to time to discuss the work undertaken by their classes; these meetings are particularly instructive for the

younger members, who make heroic efforts to outvie the older classes in initiative and persistency of purpose. The self-government department also arranges all kinds of celebrations, theatrical entertainments with the object of gaining funds for the society, and communal excursions, every detail of which is thought out by the pupils themselves. Finally, this department arranges the traditional Christmas Eve parties, to which the teaching staff is invited, as well as farewell parties for matriculated students leaving the college.

The department of domestic and financial affairs runs a loan and savings bank, which is of special importance in view of the fact that the pupils are on the whole poor. This department also conducts a pupils' co-operative store, which supplies them with articles necessary for use in the college, as well as toilet articles. A hair-dressing shop, for pupils, and served by pupils, is also maintained.

Social Welfare and Co-operation

As has been mentioned, our pupils are not prosperous, and sometimes are even quite unable to meet the costs of maintenance in the town, and for this reason a social welfare department has been founded, the object of which is the care of the most necessitous pupils. This is accomplished in various ways: an employment agency finds paid work, a special fund exists for the purchase of lunches, and textbooks are lent out. It is perhaps superfluous to add that the functionaries of all these various sections are pupils elected or appointed by the governing board of the society.

The educational department edits the school magazine, maintains a lending library, and has in its care the hall allocated for entertainments.

The art department is responsible for the care of the building and the decoration of the classrooms, usually carried out by means of *motifs* of peasant art, and the distribution of ornamental plants grown in the college greenhouses. To this department also belong the school stage and its accessories, the planning and the execution of stage costumes, and the organisation of theatrical entertainments, concerts, choirs and orchestras.

It will, therefore, be seen that every pupil can find ample opportunity of co-operating with the society in one or another branch of community life. The more talented individuals find means here to prepare for future rôles of organisers and leaders. The governing authorities are elected on the democratic principles applying in Poland to elections to the Parliament and Senate. Thus the pupils, smitten every year by election fever, have no need to study the principles of Parliamentaryism in textbooks. The yearly budget of the school republic, amounting to about 10,000 zlotys (about £240), is worked out in advance to the smallest detail, and is ratified by the governing authorities of the Society. Each department prepares its programme of activities for the following year, and the execution of the agreed programme is scrupulously observed.

Their education thus lies in the pupils' own hands, and their characters are formed in the conflict of opinion and rivalry among themselves. The teacher's task is to observe, passively, the activities of the pupils' community, and to see that the desired ends are attained by giving advice in complicated matters, or, as a final measure, by suspending meetings the proceedings of which are of an undesirable nature; it must, however, be stated that the necessity of such a measure seldom occurs.

Some Statistics of Education in Poland

By J. Hellmann

General Inspector of Schools

ACADEMIC EDUCATION

TO-DAY, Poland possesses five state universities: Cracow, Wilno (1578), Lwow (1661), Warsaw (1817), Poznan. Under the state there are also two polytechnic institutes, a veterinary college, an agronomical school, a mining academy, an academy of fine arts and a state dental institute. In addition to these, there are the University of Lublin and the Independent University in Warsaw, the School of Political Science in Warsaw, and four trade and commercial schools; all of these are private. In 1928 there was a total of 41,603 students, of whom 10,601 were women, attending these state and private institutions.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

On page 14 of this magazine will be found a description of Polish elementary education as it is at the present day, so that very little information need be added here. In 1928 the number of elementary schools amounted to 25,149, with an attendance of 3,200,000 children. By 1940 this number will have increased to over 6,000,000. The system on the whole is distinguished by absence of harmful routine, by elasticity, and by readiness to apply new methods. Elementary schooling throughout the Republic has been standardised, three different systems having been replaced by the one now in force.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

State secondary schools are divided into eight forms, comprising a lower and an upper school. The lower school (forms I, II, III) constitute a uniform basis for later instruction, and the upper school has three departments (*a*) science and mathematics; (*b*) modern (with instruction in Latin); (*c*) classical (with instruction in Greek and Latin). A 'neomodern' department without instruction in Latin has also been introduced as an experiment. The departmental division is founded on didactic bases, which are selections from the subjects of groups of kindred subjects to which a requisite number of hours of study and appropriate material are given. In all these

special attention is given to subjects dealing with Poland and the Polish language.

The majority of secondary schools are maintained by local governments, public institutions, private associations or individuals, private schools possessing the same status as state when their standard of instruction is satisfactory. There are in all 794 secondary schools, of which 270 are state, 128 private with full privileges, 290 private with partial privileges, and 106 private without privileges.

TRADE SCHOOLS

The Partitioning Powers entirely neglected the development of trade schools in Poland, and the few which existed before the War were the results of either public or private initiative. For this reason the Polish educational authorities are systematically developing trade schooling, and can already show considerable achievement.

Types of Trade Schools

Poland now possesses the following types of trade schools: Technical schools for all kinds of machine construction and auxiliary services, for electrical, wireless, aeronautical and automobile engineering, for all kinds of industries, for road-making, building, surveying and land improvement; handicraft schools, which prepare artisans for factories and trade craftsmen; women's trade schools, which prepare for all branches of tailoring and needlework, for domestic arts and commerce, and the different branches of craft work; and commercial, agricultural and continuation schools.

During 1927-28 the total number attending trade schools or courses was 159,486, five times the number attending in 1918. The majority of students have completed the seven-year elementary course, but some have completed only four or five elementary classes. In the eastern provinces of Poland the larger elementary schools have workshops in which trades are taught. Other trade schools require of their candidates the completion of six forms of a secondary school.

TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

In 1919 one system of training was introduced in place of the three previous ones. A candidate must have completed a seven-year elementary course and a five-year teachers' training course at college, after which he has to pass matriculation. He may then, after not less than two years' teaching practice, take the practical qualifying examination, which is held in the school where he has taught.

Supplementary Training

The supplementary training of teachers actually engaged in teaching has been undertaken on a large scale. From 1918 to 1928 inclusively, 1,586 thirty-day vacation courses were held, with an attendance of 70,156 teachers. Nor is the constant bringing up-to-date of qualified teachers neglected. With this object, school regional conferences are held in every county, and special vacation courses for qualified teachers given. Up to 1928 a total of 419 of the latter courses was held, with an attendance of 16,113.

The Polish Section of the New Education Fellowship

By H. Radlinska

(Professor of Education, Free University of Warsaw)

At the Locarno Conference in 1927, 36 Polish members decided to found a Section and to unify the following existing educational societies into a federation. (1) The Elementary School Teachers' Union (Związek Polskiego Nauczycielstwa Szkół Powszechnych); (2) The Secondary and Higher School Teachers' Association (Towarzystwo Nauczycieli Szkół Średnich i Wyzszych); (3) The Secondary School Teachers' Union (Związek Zawodowy Nauczycielstwa Polskich Szkół Średnich); (4) The National Association of Christian Public Elementary School Teachers (Stowarzyszenie Chrześcijańsko-Narodowe Nauczycielstwa Szkół Powszechnych); (5) The Jewish Secondary School Teachers' Union (Związek Zawodowy Nauczycielstwa Żydowskich Szkół Średnich); (6) The "Tarbut" Jewish Educational Association of Poland (Żydowskie Stowarzyszenie Oświatowe-Kulturalne w Polsce "Tarbut"); (7) The Secondary Schools Principals' Society (Kolo Przelozonych Szkół Średnich). Thus all the great pedagogic associations of Poland have entered the federation, which now represents every more important organisation of the teachers of all types of school throughout the country.

The Constitution of the Fellowship was approved, and the following officers were

elected at a special meeting: H. Radlinska, J. Mirski, M. Wawrzynowski, L. Zapolski, Z. Iwaszkiewicz, Mr. Gordon, S. Szuman.

The object was to establish an information centre, and to promote closer relations with other countries. The Section facilitates the collaboration of teachers from different grades of schools, and of parents and teachers. It will later publish an educational periodical, as well as handbooks on education in Poland.

A number of highly successful public lectures, followed by discussions, have been given. The Section supplied information to foreign guests and facilitated the visiting of schools, etc., during their stay. A centre in America was supplied with Polish books, and elementary school children's drawings were sent to an exhibition in France. A biographical sketch of the late Dr. Josephine Joteyko was sent to the press of different countries. The Polish press was kept informed of the activities of the International Bureau of Education in Geneva, and of the International Committee of School Apparatus. The Section also participated in the International Exhibition of the Third Congress of the World Federation of Educational Associations held in Geneva in the beginning of August 1929.

EDUCATIONAL EXPERIMENTS

The 'New' School in Poland

By J. Mlodowska

(Principal: Women's Training College, Chelm)

THOSE factors which, throughout the civilised world, have produced so much activity in the educational field, caused so many international educational congresses and so great a mass of pedagogic literature, and which have led to the initiation of so many attempts at school reform, also exist in Poland.

A Difference in Opinion

Not only the enlightened members of the teaching profession, but also the community, are still dissatisfied with schools as they are. The difference of opinion between these two bodies lies in the fact that the community in general considers the shortcomings of the schools to be due to factors which are in reality not fundamental, but purely accidental, while teachers consider the source of the evil to lie rather in the non-adaptation of the schools to the requirements of the psychology of the child, as it is being revealed in psychological science.

The realisation of these shortcomings gave rise to the desire to remedy them, and to create an institution satisfying both the requirements of the community and of science. Attempts at reform of the school system have therefore been made; these trials have, however, lacked co-ordination, and have not been numerous enough or of sufficient duration. After a year, or at the most two years, of trial, the new systems tend to break down, the school returning to the old system. For this reason only twelve new type schools have survived in Poland; nine elementary and three higher grade.

An Experimental Elementary School

The greatest freedom in the introduction of new didactic and educational methods is possessed by the Dworzek Cisowy School in Czorsztyn. This, a private school, was founded by one of the leaders of the Girl Guide movement, Olga Mulkowska, and

subsidized by the Scouting movement, both Polish and foreign. It is ideally situated in the foot-hills of the Carpathians. The small number of children (thirty) and the considerable difference in age of the pupils (from three to thirteen years) favours rather the group than the class system of instruction. A considerable selection is possible, also, even in these small groups, for independent work. The pupils themselves undertake all domestic duties and engage in all kinds of sports. They participate in the everyday work of the village and in its cultural life, thus developing the civic side of their life.

The Dalton Plan

The Dom Dziecka School, Warsaw, though also a private school, works under far more difficult conditions, largely due to inadequate accommodation. This prevents the sense of freedom and of self-confidence that the children should possess. A second difficulty lies in the attitude adopted by parents, who appraise the value of a school according to its success in the entrance examination to secondary schools. The methods of this school are based on the Dalton plan, Miss Lozinska being a pupil of Miss Helen Parkhurst's.

Four other schools also use the Dalton plan. Of these, the practice school of the Chelm Teachers' Training College has used the Dalton plan for the longest period of time—three years—applying it in the first three classes. The elementary school in Sokolow has applied the Dalton plan to Standards IV, V, VI and VII, and has obtained very good results. An interesting experiment is being conducted at the school in Nowogrodek, in which, apart from Standard I, the Dalton plan is being applied to the teaching of French in Standards V, VI and VII. This is the only case in Poland of the application of this system to the teaching of foreign languages. The Dalton

plan is also applied in Standard I of the elementary school at Mala Pohulanka, and in Standards IV and V of the school in Gnaszyn, near Czestochowa.

The Decroly Method

Standards I and II of the St. John Kanty School in Cracow use a form of the Decroly method—a unit consisting of an excursion, a discussion of the excursion, plastic or graphic expression, and association. The standard of instruction in these classes is very high.

The seven-standard elementary school at Czwartek pays special attention to concentration of subjects, and to their grouping according to the natural inclinations of the children. The laboratories and manual work rooms are well equipped, with the result that the level of instruction is high. These children are drawn from the poorest classes, a large percentage from orphanages.

Experimental Work in Secondary Schools

Of the secondary schools, the Women Teachers' Training College in Chelm and

the Krzemieniec Lyceum use the Dalton plan, which is also applied in a modified form in the Women Teachers' Training College in Warsaw. Apart from this, the plan is used in the following secondary schools: the Teachers' Training College at Zdunska Wola, the Teachers' Courses at Ostrog, the Rydzyn Secondary School, the Princess Sulkowski Foundation for specially talented children, the Szczaniecka High School for Girls in Lodz, the Kozmin Secondary School for Boys, and the State Secondary School in Luck, as well as the Bydgoszcz Trade School.

Self-government

Greater progress has been made in the new ideas in moral education. Self-government can now be said to be practically uniform in all schools. The ideal is to foster the whole individuality of the pupil, and to train him to be creative, take up an active attitude towards life, understand his duties to the community and to himself, and subordinate his personal interests to those of the state.

A Home School

By M. Falska

(*Director*)

THIS home is situated in the environs of Warsaw, and is designed for 10—20 infants, 70 children of school age and 30 older children. It is under the care of people who have spent many years in the study of new methods of education. The director is Mrs. Mary Falska, who works in co-operation with Dr. Janusz Korczak, the director of a Warsaw orphanage, and the originator of the educational system used in both places.

Community Life

"The years of childhood are years of actual life and not only of preparation for the future"—this is the fundamental principle of the organisation, in which every child is treated as a citizen. Both compulsion and lawlessness are avoided by adopting a system based on mutual agreement, the terms

of which are gradually evolved according to requirements, thus adapting individuals to collective life. The entire system has as its object that the children should value their stay in the home, that they should be anxious to produce their best qualities in their everyday life, that they should understand the necessity of self-control, and should desire to cultivate good habits.

The conduct of the home is based on the co-operation of all in its work. All regular household and administrative duties are assigned for periods of one month. The children report for duty; when there is no volunteer for a special duty, lots are drawn. The way in which the work is done is judged each period by the children themselves, all shortcomings and faults being noted and deducted from the work account, the culprit

himself fixing the amount to be deducted, taking into account the results achieved and the effort made. The children receive a work card for every 500 units of work entered to their account (each unit represents thirty minutes). Apart from regular duties, volunteer fatigues are readily undertaken in unforeseen developments and for extra work; this is not entered in the accounts, and trains the children to take part gladly in communal activities.

The older children attend secondary and trade schools and help with the smaller children. Great attention is paid to school work, the home exercising supervision based on standards of work done, behaviour, preparation of lessons, and care of books. Free time is spent in games, combined with manual work.

Self-Government and the Children's Court

The home is self-governed. Opinions on the morals of acts committed are delivered by a children's court of justice, the secretary of which is the form master, without a vote in the decision of the court, but with power to appeal. He observes the everyday life of the children, his conception of this part of his duties being similar to that of a physician at a clinic. The court of justice induces both children and teachers to seek concrete facts, and makes them beware of generalising and of casting suspicion, and teaches care and honesty in the forming of opinions.

The introduction to the code of the children's court states: "If anyone does anything wrong, it is better to forgive him, and to wait till he improves. The court must, however, protect quiet individuals from the attacks of aggressive and importunate ones, and must protect the weaker from persecution by the stronger. It must protect conscientious and industrious individuals from the interference of careless or lazy ones, and must see that order is maintained, as disorder does the greatest harm."

The code requires that the reasons prompting the pardoning of misdemeanours be explained, as well as the mode of estimating the seriousness of an offence. Various penalties are imposed: announcements in the home magazine or on the notice-board, notifications to parents, suspension of the offender's civic rights in the home for a week,

and unconditional or conditional expulsion; in the latter case the offender may be readmitted provided he find some person who will vouch for his behaviour in the future, and who will devote special care to his case. The court assembles once a week; its members are children drawn from those who are not on the charge-sheet or who have not filed any complaint against any of their comrades.

Complaints and Appreciations

The form master every day registers not only complaints filed by the children, but also expressions of thanks or appreciation. Thanks may thus be given to named or unnamed comrades, and the nature of the act stated. The consideration of complaints and thanks help in forming proper ideas of morality; it is characteristic that both the number of complaints and that of expressions of appreciation have diminished steadily, indicating a certain stabilisation of ethical standards.

After the consideration of the moral aspect of a case comes its legal consideration. The court notes frequently recurring misdemeanours and reports them to the self-government council, which in turn prepares by-laws regulating the social life. The chairman of the council is a form master; the councillors are elected. Projects and requests by the court and by individual children are directed to the council. The educational council, composed of teachers, co-operates very closely with the self-government council.

Aids to a Good Life

A number of institutions assist the work of self-government. Good resolutions are facilitated by "early-rising sheets", for example, and the checking up of the fulfilment of voluntarily undertaken duties. Attempts made by the children to correct bad habits are supported by a special control system. Each individual knows the community's opinion of him, through plebiscites which decide whether he is "burdensome", an "indifferent citizen", a "citizen", or a "comrade". Those relegated to the lower categories may gain higher classification by placing their case before a court of rehabilitation.

A Special Practice School in Warsaw

By M. Wawrzynowski

(*Principal*)

THE State Institute of Special Pedagogics, the director of which is Dr. Mary Grzegorzewska, was founded by the Ministry of Education in 1922 with the object of training teachers for special schools. Since special schooling involves in Poland the instruction of deaf and dumb, blind, mentally and morally deficient children, the Institute conducts four departments. In order to allow students to do practical work and to study the evolution of educational methods, the Institute has organised a practice school for mentally deficient children.

The Plan of the School

According to regulations, this school possesses six classes or grades, the scope of instruction of which is that of four classes of the elementary school; three years of trade instruction (at present, shoe-making, cabinet-making and tailoring), and supplementary courses for those who have completed the six-year courses of the special school, are also included. Work with those children who are so mentally deficient that they do not have lessons at all consists exclusively in exercising their senses, in talks, and in teaching them the most elementary occupations, such as basket-making and simple weaving.

The Curriculum

The curriculum of the special school is modelled on the Decroly general principles modified and adapted to Polish conditions and requirements. The material is taken from the immediate environment of the child, and is directly connected with him. In the first place he himself, his fundamental needs and his environment are considered; his activity and reaction to the material placed before him are also observed. The teacher in training is given only the outline of the material to be used; in the selection and arrangement of it he is guided exclusively by his knowledge of the child and of the successive phases of his awakening interest, so that the experiments per-

formed and the work done connect together all the subjects of instruction. In this way a complete structure is obtained, all the parts of which are correlated and interdependent. Thus the permanence of experiences and their educational influence is determined.

The centres of interest in the different classes of the practice school are: Grade I, the child and his needs (food, house, clothes); Grade II, the child and nature, with special reference to work in the school's garden; Grade III, the child and nature, with special reference to the vegetable and animal worlds, and to the need for co-operation; Grade IV, the child and the community in which he lives, with consideration to co-operation; Grade V, the child and the community in general; Grade VI, the child, his native country, and the forms of social life.

Psychological Study of the Child

One of the fundamental conditions of the rational education of abnormal children is that the teacher has a thorough knowledge of their stage of physical and psychical development. To this end, the Institute provides for close co-operation between medical and pedagogic work. After examination in the psycho-pedagogic laboratory of the Institute, which determines their intelligence index, and the degree and kind of their aberration, the children are examined by the school doctor, who is a specialist in neurology. He communicates his observations to the class master, with whom he establishes the type to which each child belongs. All the data concerning each child, including his inherited and personal peculiarities, all observations made and results obtained, are entered into a special book planned by Dr. Grzegorzewska.

Every teacher must at least three times yearly visit every child's home and enter his observations in the biographical book, in which all changes in the life of the children after leaving school are also entered.

The Krzemieniec Lyceum

By K. Kochler

(Principal)

IN the town of Krzemieniec, at the foot of Bona's Hill, in one of the most picturesque parts of Volhynia, is the Krzemieniec Lyceum. It differs from other schools in being financially independent of the state, and hence possessing greater freedom in the application of new methods of education and instruction.

The Lyceum is a community of schools under common direction. It possesses its own buildings and church, and the necessary revenue is yielded by Treasury estates assigned for the purpose.

The Foundation and Revival

The Lyceum was founded in 1805 by Thaddeus Czacki, statesman and patriot, at a time when Poland was partitioned between three alien powers. It was closed by the Russians in 1831, and the scientific collections and extensive library were sent to Russia, where they were taken over by the newly-created University of Kieff.

The idea of reviving the Lyceum arose in 1919. In 1920 Field-Marshal Pilsudski, then Chief of State, enacted in a decree that "this famous school" be re-opened, simultaneously assuring its material existence by granting the right of exploitation of certain Treasury estates.

Buildings, Equipment, Pupils and Staff

The Lyceum to-day comprises: a nursery school; a co-educational secondary school (science and mathematics); a co-educational teachers' training college in conjunction with a practice school; an agricultural school for men, also possessing a forestry department; a school of cabinet-making. Other schools are planned for the future. There are chemical, physical and natural history laboratories, and a geography room; a library of over 7,000 volumes; boys' and girls' boarding schools; workshops (including wireless engineering, ski-making, and school equipment); a small sanatorium in a pine forest for tuberculous pupils; a surgery and dis-

pensary, and a dental surgery. The staff comprises 54 teachers, two physicians and one dental surgeon.

There are at present 933 pupils, of whom half are boarders. The pupils have their own social organisations, co-operative societies, and scientific, musical, dramatic and touring societies, run under the direction of professionals. The touring club publishes a monthly entitled "Our Horizon" (*Nasz Widnokrąg*).

The Dalton Plan and Practical Help

The Dalton Plan was introduced in 1928, and now operates throughout the secondary school and in the training college. Parallel classes for exceptionally intelligent children have been introduced in the practice school. New principles in education have been introduced. Physical training and gymnastics are conducted by groups arranged according to physique. The teaching personnel is kept in constant touch with new tendencies.

The Lyceum assists in the building of public elementary schools and supports various social organisations and institutions. The Lyceum does not restrict itself to financial aid, but takes an active part in the life and organisation of these institutions. A large sum is spent yearly in scholarships for poorer pupils in its own schools and in other schools, mostly academic or trade. A condition which scholars must adhere to is that after completing their studies they will choose Volhynia as their field of activity. Considerable sums are assigned for excursions; one of the aims of the Lyceum is that every pupil shall acquaint himself with the whole of Poland during his stay at Krzemieniec.

Aid to Child Refugees

During the first few years of its renewed existence the Lyceum sheltered a number of children belonging to refugee families from Bolshevik Russia, or who had escaped from Russia without their parents, and who had no relatives in Poland.

Educational Reform in a Private Secondary School for Boys in Lodz

By B. Ameisen

(*Principal*)

THIS school was founded in 1921, and our first effort was to discover a remedy for the evil of too many subjects.

The New System

The school therefore evolved a new system of teaching. The individual subjects of instruction are concentrated, and predominate in certain half-years and years, not more than two chief subjects being taught during the same period; during the entire school course not more than two subjects are taught in one day; general education is completed in form five, after form six a division into departments commencing, each department being based on specialisation. Double periods were also introduced for main subjects and manual work.

The Place of Latin

In secondary schools one of the more important changes which made possible the introduction of our scheme was the transferring of instruction in Latin to forms six, seven and eight. On the modern side, Latin is our chief subject, and to its study is devoted the greatest number of hours, hardly less than that given to it in state secondary schools, although its teaching is concentrated in a lesser number of years.

Continuity of Schooling

According to this scheme a pupil passes directly from the sixth standard of an elementary to the third form of a secondary school. Our organisation involves two new steps in the direction of achieving continuity of schooling: (1) three secondary school forms (three, four and five) are separated from the rest, and are devoted exclusively to general education, transferring the division into modern and scientific to form six. This makes transition from elementary to secondary school much easier. (2) General education in secondary schools and secondary trade schools is placed on an equal

footing, thereby making possible the transition from each of these to the corresponding higher school.

Changes in Methods

Even without any modification of the methods the scheme constitutes, we think, an important advance in school hygiene. It removes the nervous strain due to excessive and distracting work on a kaleidoscopic variety of subjects, arouses fresh enthusiasm for work, and liberates stifled energy.

This reform has the further advantage of making it far easier to introduce changes in actual methods of instruction. The concentration of a greater number of hours on chief subjects facilitates teaching in special rooms for each subject, instead of in classrooms, and enables the introduction of rationalised work. The removal of the constant competition of different subjects with each other makes possible the application of various modifications which tend to augment the activity of the pupil.

If, for example, we consider the Dalton plan, it will be obvious that it will be easier to introduce it when there are four subjects taught over a six-month period than when there are seven.

The Concentrative Method

Certain changes in the methods of instruction were suggested by the organisation of this scheme, and have been applied. Our educational method might be termed a concentrative method. As a consequence, concentration round the chief subjects followed, and the co-operation of teachers towards this end, or the combining of similar subjects under one teacher. Marks have been abolished as a result of the increase of disinterested work, and of the greater activity due to more easily aroused interest in the subjects. In connexion with all this, growing confidence between pupils and masters has been noticed, as well as an increase in truthfulness and sincerity.

Creative Education in an Elementary School

By Dr. Stephanie Tatarzanka

(Inspector of Schools)

THE village of Turkowicze possesses 88 houses, and has a population of about 1,000. The villagers are poor, and the state of cultivation of the individual farms was very poor, as a result of the inefficient methods of agriculture used. The material and cultural conditions of the population were, therefore, extremely unsatisfactory.

The Beginning

Michael Sjudak, a graduate of a higher school of agriculture, began work as a teacher in this village under these conditions eight years ago. When he took over the head mastership of the school there was no schoolhouse. This was erected a few years later, thanks to his endeavours.

The school now has sixty pupils in five classes in one classroom, and only the most primitive supply of educational apparatus. Sjudak based his work on the exigencies and conditions of village life, and influenced the parents through the children. He took as his basis of instruction, not books, but local economic and cultural conditions, his object being to develop the economic independence of the villagers. He heightened the interest felt by the younger as well as by the older generation, in modern methods of farming, industry and commerce, by taking the immediate environment as a working foundation. The following shows the way in which the teaching is carried out.

Cultivation of the Soil

A beginning is made with the elements of soil science; this consists in the examination of various specimens of soil brought by the children to school, and in discussions of its quality and its components, and of the conditions under which it can be employed. The children then go with the teacher to the fields, where an experimental plot is selected. Two plots were taken from the waste land occupied by old trenches; one was properly, the other insufficiently, prepared by manuring for the cultivation of oats. After these had sprouted, the party again visited these plots, accompanied by a

crowd of interested parents. The difference in the yield of the two plots spoke for itself. No lectures or persuasion were necessary to convince the villagers of the advantage of more up-to-date methods of farming. The results were the cause of an increase of 15 per cent over pre-War figures in the livestock possessed by the peasants; livestock became in their minds a means for the attainment of better harvests by the utilisation of manure in agriculture. A similar method was used in order to secure the cultivation of better varieties of corn.

War against Parasites and Pests

A small army of children was enrolled in 1923 to combat the diseases and harmful parasites of fruit trees, of the clover family, of rye and of corn. The casualties were examined at school, the spoilt crops or fruit being weighed, and the total weight calculated for the entire area from which the pests had been cleared. The progress made is recorded in statistical tables compiled from records kept for the year. The scheme of work is the same in all cases: observation of the experimental plot; eradication of the pest; an excursion to the fields, where the destruction on one square metre of land is determined and the loss per hectare calculated.

The battle waged by the children against pests, parasites, weeds and plant diseases not only directly convinces the parents of the value of the school, but also has an educative influence on the children themselves. They learn to observe cause and effect and acquire efficiency and self-reliance.

Finally, this work, commenced and carried through collectively, and the collective consideration of results, inculcates thoroughness and carefulness in work, and instils a common sentiment of solidarity, and of the identity of aims and interests. The country becomes not only a beautiful landscape, but also a field of work, and the source of all life; the riches of this treasury depend on the efforts of human muscles, on human energy and mental development, and on

the emotional relation existing between the farmer and his land, which may bring prosperity or ruin, according to the interest taken, the efforts made and the work accomplished by him.

Excursions

Excursions are made from time to time, in order to extend the children's knowledge beyond the limits of their immediate environment. During these excursions they learn practically the elements of geography and natural history, as well as various aspects of cultural life. They become acquainted with the boundaries of their farms, village, commune, county and district, and are enabled to compare differences in landscape, climate and fertility of soil; they examine the social condition of farmers, and acquaint themselves with different types of farms. In this way they can compare the principles of organisation and the methods of work applied in these other farms with those obtaining in their own village.

The excursions take the children with their teacher from village to village, from school to school, sleeping in shelters, schools, barns and huts; their food, consisting for the greater part of bread and pork fat, is carried in their haversacks. The cost of the excursions is defrayed from a common fund, the amount paid being in accordance with the prosperity of the parents. On their return, the children discuss the material gathered at school and at home, for the villagers impatiently await their return.

The Co-operative Idea

As Turkowicze does not possess a co-operative store, the teacher, desirous of furthering the idea of co-operation, has elaborated a comparison between the factory prices of clothing materials and those paid in the village. Facts, figures and comparisons speak for themselves, and become subjects of consideration by the older generation also, who takes them as its current topics of interest.

The Polish Language and Self-Government

Polish lessons commence with the reading by the teacher of selected articles on current matters from newspapers. He then discusses the good and bad sides of the life of

individuals or of the whole community, as seen in the light of actual occurrences, and comments on their significance. By arousing interest in current matters in children of other than Polish nationality, i.e. Ruthenian and Czech, considerable proficiency and freedom in speaking Polish has been attained. In this case, too, the subjects dealt with during the lessons are of interest to the adult population, who later hear of them from the children.

This work on the development of emotions, interest and aims is supplemented by two other factors: the wall school magazine and the school library. The magazine, written by the children, comprises the following sections: a monthly meteorological report compiled from daily observations; a school chronicle; a local chronicle; news from other parts of Poland; world news. Each section is elaborated jointly by the children of classes II—V, who also make the greatest use of the library. They are allowed to select freely and relate the contents of books read to the teacher, when they have to justify their interest or lack of interest in any book. Statistics show that the amount of reading done both by children and adults is constantly increasing.

The school magazine and the library are conducted by the children themselves, with the advice, assistance and direction of the teacher. They also conduct a small co-operative store for the sale of stationery, appoint a children's court of justice, and carry out inspection of personal cleanliness.

Advantages and Results

The advantages of taking as the basis of the education of these children the local agricultural conditions of ordinary peasant life, and the educational and cultural level of the village population, are manifold. The child becomes strongly attached to his locality, and, by assisting the adult population to the utmost of his power, he becomes one with them in the struggle for achievement of new economic and cultural standards.

The results achieved are very evident. On Sundays and holidays the school is filled by a crowd of children and adults, who meet here to discuss or ask advice in purely personal difficulties as well as in those affecting the whole community.

INTERNATIONAL NOTES

Thirty Years of New Ideals

will be the subject of the New Ideals in Education Conference to be held at Somerville College, Oxford, during Easter Week. Particulars from Mrs. M. Collins, Fairacre, Wiltshire Lane, Eastcote, Middlesex.

The Progressive Education Association (U.S.A.)

will hold its annual conference at Washington, D.C., 2, 3, 4 April. Particulars from the Secretary, Progressive Education Association, 10 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

Institute of Medical Psychology (London)

The National Council for Mental Hygiene has formed, in conjunction with the Tavistock Clinic, a Joint Committee for the establishment of an Institute of Medical Psychology to serve as a Demonstration and Research unit for the early and preventive treatment of nervous breakdown and minor mental disorders in adults and children. A small hostel has been opened at 12 Endsleigh Street, London, W.C.1, for adult patients. It is hoped that funds will be forthcoming to extend the present buildings of the Tavistock Clinic, to establish a hostel outside London, to open a Children's Home (the nucleus of a training school for psycho-therapy), and to establish research Fellowships and Studentships. The Institute proposes to deal with the minor forms of maladjustment variously listed as "nervous debility", "neurasthenia", and the like. It seeks to relieve people who, from causes other than physical, are distracted by pain, or suffer from fears and obsessions and emotional disturbances of all kinds. Further particulars from the Secretary, 51 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Psychology applied to Vocational Guidance

Within recent years the validity of psychological methods in vocational guidance has been examined in several important experiments in Great Britain. The first of these experiments was undertaken jointly by the Institute of Industrial Psychology (London) and the Industrial Fatigue Research Board in 1923.* The "follow-up" inquiry, conducted two years after a group of 100 children had been examined and given advice, showed that 80 per cent of those who had entered occupations of the kind recommended were satisfied with their work. Of those who had obtained employment of a kind different from that recommended, more than 60 per cent were dissatisfied.

A more extensive experiment is now under way with 600 boys and girls. Collection of information as to their occupational success will extend from three to five years. In addition to the 600 boys and girls who have been tested and advised, another group of 600 will be followed, this group not having been examined by the Institute, but advised by their head teachers on leaving school. Information concerning their success will also be collected. Although the full time allowed for the test has not expired, results so far show that 60 per cent of the boys and

73 per cent of the girls who were advised are satisfied with their work. Of those who obtained employment different from that advised, only 36 per cent of the boys and 55 per cent of the girls expressed satisfaction. Further enquiries are also on foot in Cambridge, Fifehire and Birmingham. (Address of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology—Aldwych House, Aldwych, London, W.C.2.)

McMillan Nursery School Training Centre

The foundation-stone of the new Training Centre in connection with the Rachel McMillan Nursery School at Deptford was laid recently by Viscountess Astor, M.P., to whom the new scheme owed so much for financial assistance. The site had been given by Viscount Astor. Lady Astor paid a fine tribute to the work of Rachel and Margaret McMillan, the latter of whom referred, in warm appreciation, to the work of Miss Stevinson and the staff. When the new buildings are completed they will provide accommodation for 80 students, who will specialise during their training in nursery school methods and will have the great advantage of being able to practise in the McMillan Nursery School, which adjoins the new buildings.

La Maison des Petits,

an experimental school formerly supported by the Institut J. J. Rousseau, Geneva, is now within the control of the education department of the Canton of Geneva, and is housed in new quarters, together with the Ecole Expérimental du Mail, of which M. P. Dottrens is principal. La Maison des Petits is still directed by Mlle M. Audemars and Mlle L. Lafendel, who have full freedom in directing the school's work. It was founded fifteen years ago by Professor Ed. Claparède as an educational research and demonstration centre for young teachers, and it is hoped now to show that its methods can be followed within the state system of education. To-day there are 40 children from 4 to 6 years of age.

The Institut Universitaire des Sciences Pédagogiques

has been created at Geneva with Prof. P. Bovet at its head and Prof. J. Piaget as director. This Institut will include within it the work of the Institut J. J. Rousseau.

Self-Government in Schools

is to be one of the subjects of research undertaken by Prof. Piaget at the Bureau International d'Éducation, Geneva.

New Schools in Japan

The New Education Society, 110 Yotsuya-kusamoncho, Tokyo, has issued a list of new schools in Japan. The list contains 54 names of schools, some founded as far back as 1914. It is clear that most new Western methods are known and used in Japan, the Decroly, Montessori and Dalton, for example. With one exception the schools are day schools, most of them numbering upward of a thousand pupils. One school states as its aim "the training of personality by perfect service, hard work and faith", another seeks to "form character and avoid the evil influence of over-estimated intellectual culture".

* Industrial Fatigue Research Board Report No. 33, also Industrial Psychology Journal, vol. iii.

The First World Conference on the Problem of the Cripple

met at Geneva in August, 1929, when important resolutions were passed concerning the education and care of crippled children. Details concerning the work of the International Society for Crippled Children can be obtained from Mr. E. F. Allen, President, Elyria, Ohio, U.S.A.

German Schoolboys visit England

In October a group of boys from the Neukölln Secondary School, Berlin, spent a week at Gresham's School, Holt. The visit was the outcome of a tour in Germany arranged for boys from some of the English public schools.

An interesting paragraph appeared in a recent issue of *The Times* signed by Herr H. Walz, University of Freiburg i.B., suggesting that more parties of schoolboys and girls from England would visit Germany if they had someone to help them to organise their visits. Herr Walz offers his assistance. It is generally possible in a university town to put up the boys and girls at small cost or free of charge. The S.R. agent at Cologne offers 50 per cent reduction to such parties travelling in Germany.

The Company of Friendly Adventurers (The Friend Ship, Charing Cross Pier, London, W.C.) also assists in organising visits of schoolchildren abroad. This year about 150 children were taken through Belgium and down the Rhine at a very low cost. It is expected that about 4,000 will be thus taken next year.

Parents and Schools in Germany

Some of the German states have admitted parents to the governing bodies of their schools. The membership of a typical governing body is as follows:—From two to six ratepayers, the headmaster of the school, one assistant teacher elected from among the teachers themselves and approved by the school authorities, one medical man appointed by the authorities, and a secretary who must be an official. Governing bodies of this kind have been in existence for upwards of 40 years, but the presence of parents of actual pupils among their number was, and still is, rare and quite fortuitous.

Education and the League of Nations,

the Report of the Joint Committee of Enquiry into the Teaching and the Aims and Achievements of the League of Nations in Public Elementary Schools, Training Colleges and University Training Departments, is now available. The Committee of Enquiry consisted of representatives from the Association of Education Committees, the Association of Municipal Corporations, the County Councils' Association, the Joint Six Committee of Teachers' Associations, the National Union of Teachers, the Council of Principals of Training Colleges, the Training College Association and the League of Nations Union.

The Committee prepared three *questionnaires*: one for local education authorities, another for certain secondary schools, and a third for teachers' training colleges and university training departments. In their replies secondary schools commented on the restrictive influence of examinations, but the Report notes how the Central Welsh Board amended its history syllabuses to bring them more into line with

work suggested by the League. The purpose of the enquiry is "to propose such further steps . . . to provide that 'all children and young people should, before completing their formal education, learn something of the aims and work of the League of Nations, the terms of its Covenant, and the recent growth of international co-operation'." It is recommended that teachers be given facilities for attending courses and summer schools in international relations and some of the sessions of the League's Assembly at Geneva, and that the attention of teachers should be drawn to the facilities offered by the League of Nations Union and other libraries for the supply of books likely to be of value in their teaching. An appendix gives details of the services of the League of Nations Union library. It may not be generally known that boxes of books for school use may be obtained and that copies of school readers can be borrowed in bulk at a small fee. For teachers the two following books are recommended: *The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations* and *Teachers and World Peace*, obtainable from the League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.1.

In connection with this subject, the B.I.E., Geneva, has issued a report of a conference held in September, 1928, on the problem of education for international co-operation. The Report (*Comment faire connaître La Société des Nations et développer l'Esprit de Co-operation internationale*) contains a useful list of relevant books in different languages and can be obtained from the B.I.E., 44 Rue des Maraîchers, Geneva. (*Education and the League of Nations*. Price 3d. L. of N. Union.)

Education in India

The Hartog Report on education in India has appeared. It is the work of experts appointed by the Simon Commission. Despite a rapid advance in the last five years there are even now only 9,000,000 boys and girls receiving primary education out of a total of 34,000,000 of school-going age. This in spite of the fact that expenditure on primary education has been more than doubled during the last ten years. The percentage of males over 5 years old who can read and write is only 14.4, of females only 2.0. "Throughout the whole educational system," says the report, "there is waste and ineffectiveness. In the primary system the waste is appalling." "In the sphere of secondary education there has been an advance in some respects. But the whole system of secondary education is still dominated by the ideal that every boy who enters a secondary school should prepare himself for the university; and the immense numbers of failures at matriculation and in the university examinations indicate a great waste of effort."

The Cinema in Education

The International Educational Cinematographic Institute (of the League of Nations), Via Lazzaro Spallanzani 1, Rome, has issued an international review, *Educational Cinematograph*, the first number having appeared in July, 1929. Among other objects the Institute seeks to promote the production, circulation and exchange between various countries of films dealing with education. The Review is published in five editions—English, Italian, French, German and Spanish.

International New Education Films Association

The first general meeting of the Association was held at Elsinore on 15 August, 1929, the Chairman, Mrs. Marion Beaufait, presiding.

Dr. Decroly outlined a scheme for beginning work with a set of films of New Schools and Child Psychology, already existing.

Dr. A. Ferrière dealt with plans for making popular films to interest the public in New Education. Dr. Ethel Waring, Professor of Child Guidance at Cornell University, U.S.A., spoke on the great importance of Child Psychology for use in Teacher Training Colleges; and Dr. Virgil E. Dickson, Director of Public Schools in Berkeley, California, and Dr. Paul Dengler, Director of the Austro-American Institute of Education, Vienna, emphasised the great value of the film in furthering New Education. In answer to questions, five separate sources for raising funds were named, and 5/- subscriptions were asked for from members to help start the organisation in the different countries. All information, including lists of films, to be obtained from Miss G. Cruttwell, Castle-gate, St. Andrews, Scotland.

Co-Education

Dr. E. Lyttleton, for seventeen years the headmaster of Eton, recently addressed an invitation meeting held at the home of the British Institute for Social Service on "Co-Education". Mr. Percy Alden presided. Dr. Lyttleton pointed out that revolutionary changes were taking place in education, though few people seemed to realise it. He had himself become a convert to co-education by what he saw at St. George's School, Harpenden, the chairman of whose Governors he had become. Discussion followed, during which the biological argument was used against co-education; but, on the other hand, Sir Benjamin Gott quoted the cases of fifteen co-educational secondary schools in Middlesex where the examination results of boys in these co-educational schools were better than those of boys in boys' schools, and the results of the girls in them were better than those of the girls in girls' schools. Dr. Grant (headmaster of St. George's), Mr. G. S. M. Ellis, and others also took part in the discussion.

Research on a New Curriculum

The Scottish National Research Council on Education, appointed by the Educational Institute of Scotland, Scottish Education Authorities, the Scottish Education Department, and Scottish Training Colleges, is to be asked to form a new curriculum for the teaching of children between the ages of 12 and 15 to meet the demand of the raising of the school age in 1931. They are to be further asked to consider the question of abolishing examinations in all Scottish schools.

Educational Colonies

"Some Striking Facts for Child Welfare Workers" is a plea for the establishment of Educational Colonies, and this slight pamphlet is issued in conjunction with the Educational Colonies Association. The idea is to combine education with work on the land. One of the arguments put forward in favour of the scheme is that it forms a means of lessening the crowded

conditions of urban areas and, at the same time, places children in the open air and with Nature. The argument that children can maintain themselves by their work and even provide a surplus is one that may appeal to Indian readers for whom the pamphlet is primarily intended. Further particulars from T. A. Petavel, Bex, Vaud, Switzerland.

Progressive Education

The journal *Progressive Education* (10 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.) will be published monthly (instead of quarterly) beginning with the February 1930 issue. At the same time it will alter its continuous policy of devoting each number to a special field.

Members of the Progressive Education Association feel that a more frequent distribution of articles will not only permit of a wider scope, but will also offer an opportunity to deal with important current information as soon as it is available.

The journal will deal less exclusively with the education of very young children. Especially during the last three or four years many interesting developments have become operative in the field of secondary and higher education. *Progressive Education* will give voice to all such movements in so far as they indicate progress.

One series of articles will be devoted to the contributions to the field made by great educators of the past.

Mr. F. M. Froelicher will undertake temporarily the editorship of the magazine in its new form.

The International Animal Protection Bureau in Geneva

This Centre, founded in 1928 in Geneva by the Animal Defence and Anti-Vivisection Society, 35 Old Bond Street, London, under the leadership of the Duchess of Hamilton and Miss Lind-af-Hageby, supplies a long-felt need for a point of union and co-ordination for the ramifications throughout the world of the organised work for animals. It acts as an information bureau, and its educational work, concentrated in an extensive Humane Exhibition, illustrating by models and pictures existing forms of cruelty and their remedy, has a far-reaching scope. The humane education of the child has an important section in this Exhibition which attracts teachers and educationalists from many countries. Last, but not least, the International Bureau works to get the welfare of animals in its international aspect included within the sphere of influence of the League of Nations. (Bureau International Humanitaire Zoophile, 4 Cour St. Pierre, Geneva).

German Scholars Seek Invitation to England

Dr. E. Witter, Lübeckerstr. 101, Hamburg, wishes to bring to England his class (pupils aged 16-18 years) from a high school in Hamburg, and asks if any school will offer him quarters (a dormitory or barn is suggested) at the rate of about 4/- per day per pupil. In return a group of English pupils would be welcomed at his school, which has a boarding house by a lake near Hamburg. Whitsuntide would be a suitable time. Will interested schools please communicate with Dr. Witter direct?

BOOK REVIEWS

Everyman's Psychology. By SIR JOHN ADAMS, M.A.
University of London Press. 10/6.

This is a book for the publication of which one can only feel regret.

The range of subject treated is very wide, and the style journalistic. The headings given extend from Herbart's Philosophy to the Selenium Dog, and include the Psychology of Selling, "Art Women Motor or Sensory Types?" "Can Temperament be Modified?" "A Hint from Kant," "Borer and Boree," "The Phenometer," and "The Atomic Psyche."

The general tone may be gathered by the following extract, taken at random (page 188):—"It has to be admitted that there is a type that is morbidly afraid of the acquiring of knowledge. This is especially noticeable among those engaged in what they like to call 'creative work.' They have the idea that such knowledge leads to a dulling of originality or invention."

As regards analytical psychology, Sir John Adams feels that Herbart was "a distinct anticipator of Dr. Sigmund Freud," who "though usually regarded as the founder and origin of the whole system—though he is certainly its most outstanding exponent, he is by no means its originator," . . . "but there is no doubt that the Freudian and Herbartian treatment of ideas are so like one another that it might be possible for a reader of the two to think that the one was founded on the other."

Unfortunately the validity of his valuation of psychoanalysis is marred by certain fundamental misconceptions both of the nature and purpose of the method. The account given by him of the process of psychoanalytical technique is unfortunately at variance with all the principles and the experience of workers in that technique. One will hope that descriptions of that therapy, published by psychoanalysts themselves—such as that in Benn's six-penny series—will be read after Sir John Adams, in order that a comparison may be arrived at, on the basis of knowledge

M. F. LOWENFELD

The English Tradition of Education. By CYRIL NORWOOD, M.A., D.Lit., Headmaster of Harrow School. Murray. 10/6.

"The ideal of chivalry" and "the ideal of training for the service of the community . . . have been combined in the tradition of English education which holds the field to-day. It is based upon religion; it relies largely upon games and open-air prowess, where these involve corporate effort; it has developed an intellectual appeal on many sides . . . it has cast its Puritanism . . . it is inspired by the duty of preparing all for the service of their generation."

So Dr. Norwood examines school religion, athletics, discipline, culture and service, the "factors which make up this English ideal"; then, in chapters on "The Secondary Boarding School," "The Secondary Day School," and "The Elementary School," he shows us the schools as they are. The boarding school scale of values is not all it might be; the secondary day school suffers from lack of time and opportunity, while the elementary school (to whose teachers he pays warm tribute) has to drop its work just when it should begin to reap rewards. Finally, he sketches things as they might be.

It would be both impertinent and futile to criticise Dr. Norwood for not holding all the beliefs one holds oneself, or for condemning what one has found good. He has been sufficiently reproached for the very occasional indiscretions and hasty and ill-judged remarks and judgments in this book. It is my more pleasant duty to pay tribute to one who has seen a great vision, a vision of "an educated democracy . . . a democracy so educated in every type of school that it will answer to the call of the same ideals and accept the same standards of conduct and service." The number of headmasters, he says somewhere in the book, who have in their own presence been called great is astonishing. No doubt he has himself more than once been reckoned with that astonishing group; and I dare here to repeat the assertion. This book is unequal; one or two parts are, to my mind, even paltry, and more are unconvincing; when the author enters the realm of philosophic discussion he flounders as one wading in deep and troubled waters, but . . . he knows and honours the tradition he wishes to perpetuate, and it is a great and noble tradition; he knows the difficulties of maintaining that tradition, and he is not afraid to face them. He is armed with faith, and he is a fighter, and one who will leave the world of education a little better than he found it. And he fights his fight illumined by a vision of a city beautiful, a city in which spiritual values are placed first for all men of all classes. To such a one it is possible to say only, Go on, go on.

H. C. DENT

A Modern Philosophy of Education. By GODFREY H. THOMSON. Allen & Unwin. 8/6.

A daring title, we think, remembering how often our eyes have brightened at yet another "Schoolmaster's Complete Vade-mecum." But the preface sets all fears of disillusionment at rest. Professor Thomson has filled the post of Professor of Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, Armstrong College, Newcastle-on-Tyne, and Edinburgh University, where he now lectures as Bell Professor of Education, and, as he remarks, "The rapid changes from England to America, back to England, and then to Scotland, were well calculated to shake up any preconceived notions I might have possessed."

That is the keynote of a most attractive book, attractive because it combines the scholar's cool judgment and accuracy with the capacity of the pioneer to create much out of small beginnings. He maintains that educationally "one-half of the world does not know how the other half lives," and pleads that, changing spectacles with our neighbour, we should endeavour to gain "a more solid, stereoscopic picture of what might be."

For Professor Thomson a philosophy of education includes not merely a knowledge of the history of education and psychology, but of biology, of heredity, of sociology, and lastly of religion. His main problem postulated is: "Do we educate for this world or the next?"; his answer is, that to prepare children to live as completely as possible in this life will best fit them for the hereafter. He would therefore have his students train themselves to be 'philosopher-kings'.

In the chapters on the Function, Factors and Aim of Education respectively, he reviews with sanity and sympathetic appreciation most of the attitudes of mind of the much harassed, deeply pondering educator. He does not dogmatise, but, after following him through the intricacies of the essentially modern problem: "Should we do as we like? or Can we like what we do?" we feel something of the security of the faithful when a voice has spoken *ex cathedra*. The chapters on "Free Will," "Heredity," and "The Social Inheritance," show the theorist who is not afraid to face the practical difficulties of his age. "To me," he says, "the main problems of society present themselves as problems of population, survival and selection, including migration, and I have a profound conviction that education must be closely concerned with these questions."

Finally, after an admirable summary of present conditions and future possibilities of Adolescent and Adult Education, in a chapter headed "Pride and Prejudice" he cleaves his way straight to the heart of those hidden problems of education—religion, patriotism and class consciousness, which, disregarded, so often ruin the work of the most earnest and self-sacrificing teacher, because he has built his house on sand.

It is a vital, dynamic, stimulating book, which more than justifies the author's modest statement in the opening chapter that he uses the word philosophy only to indicate that he wishes to look at education as a whole, and try to make as consistent and sensible an idea of that whole as he can.

F. M. B.

The Principles of Educational Policy. By NICHOLAS A. HANS, Ph.D. P. S. King & Co., Ltd. (London). 6/-.

The title of this book is somewhat misleading in that Doctor Hans has devoted most of his treatise not to the formulating of any new principles of education, but to an examination of those educational systems already in use. And while his own brief comments on these systems are not without value, it is for its clear, concise and excellently arranged analysis of educational legislation that his book will prove most useful. It is no light task to compress into 173 small pages a pretty exhaustive summary of the educational problems of the Western world and the various attempts being made at their solution. The author has performed this task admirably.

It is somewhat humiliating to find that England is so seldom in the van of progress, though the self-satisfied may find some consolation in the knowledge that it is equally seldom in the rear.

A book to be read by all responsible, in however slight a degree, for the framing of educational policy.

O. J. H.

Principles of Experimental Psychology. By HENRI PIERON. Translated by J. B. MINER. Kegan Paul. 10/6.

Experimental psychology is now so thoroughly established as a science, and its modes of procedure and details of technique are so well discussed in various excellent text-books, manuals, published "courses", and specialised works, that we turn with pleasure to welcome a new volume concerned with its fundamental principles. Its author, Professor at the Collège de France and at the Institut de Psychologie of the University of Paris, and Director of

the Laboratory of Psychology at the Sorbonne, has already in his *Thought and the Brain* made a classic contribution to the literature of his subject. In the present volume of 170 pages he plumbs the depths of its practical and experimental side and reveals the grand principles that govern and animate its immensely important work of research. Following a valuable Introduction—somewhat more than half of which is a historical review and the rest a brief and lucid account of Purpose and Methods—come twenty-three chapters arranged in six Parts. One is impressed at the very outset by this skilful arrangement of matter, while the six main titles of the Parts and the minor titles of the chapters prepare one for the comprehensive yet thorough treatment of every really important aspect of the subject. Though this is a difficult book, it is also one of first-class importance and value; and of absorbing interest.

Part One discusses "The Reactive Processes and Forms of Behaviour". In Part Two we get a brilliant treatment of "Affective Reactions and the Orientation of Conduct". Part Three is concerned with "Perceptive Reactions and the Acquisition of Experience". In Part Four we have an all too brief treatment of "Intellectual Reactions and the Elaboration of Experience": profound, suggestive and enlightening. The subject of Part Five is "The Levels of Activity and the Utilisation of Experience", and its careful analytical and expository studies lead logically to the consideration of "Mental Stages and Types" in Part Six. In this final section are discussed many of the great questions that interest all students of psychology to-day—race, sex, individual, type, will, intelligence, judgments of value, character, "mental profile": and Professor Piéron touches upon no question without illuminating its setting or itself.

In conclusion we should like to congratulate Professor Miner on his excellent work as translator.

R. J. FYNNE

The Psychology of the Infant. By DR. SIEGFRIED BERNFELD, translated by ROSETTA HURWITZ, Library of Educational Psychology. Kegan Paul. 15/- net.

It is a matter of congratulation that this valuable work has at last been translated into English for the benefit of those interested in the psychology of infants, who are not in a position to study it in the original. The translation has been carefully and well done, so that it has been perhaps well worth waiting for on this account since 1925, when the book was first published, a fact to be remembered. The translation of Dr. Bernfeld's complicated style and many new words is a performance needing no little skill, and both the meaning and the spirit of the work have been well kept. In one place only does there seem to be some confusion. On page 18 we read that the infant should be allowed to sleep as much as possible without disturbance to avoid "frightening the new-born with its tendencies to tetanus." Now fright may produce convulsions, but scarcely those of tetanus, which is the result of bacteriological infection of a particular sort.

In this comprehensive and intensive study of the child from the day of his birth to weaning, a period both theoretically and practically of an importance which can hardly be exaggerated, Dr. Bernfeld deals in the light of modern knowledge with every aspect of infant life. Sections deal with sleeping, crying, and nursing; others with the development of the

senses, seeing, hearing, tasting, etc.; others in turn treat of the growing instincts of mastery, including the use of the hands and legs in sitting, crawling, and walking.

Whereas the book cannot be recommended to a beginner in the study of child psychology, those who have already made considerable research into the subject from the works of both past and present writers will find it of immense value, since it connotes the comments of ethnologists, the earlier psychologists and observers of infant behaviour, such as Pryer, Shinn, Darwin, Dix, Stern and others, with the more far-reaching interpretations of the same material by Freud, Ferenczi and others who have not been content merely to record their observations, but to attempt an interpretation of actions and emotions, without any explanation of their cause or why simple experiences of infancy should play such an important part in the structure of the child life.

Although this book describes the behaviour and emotions of the infant from the time of birth to weaning only, it also offers the greatest assistance to those who wish to understand the psychology of the child in his subsequent life, his normality, or his future tendency to neurosis or maladjustment.

MARY CHADWICK

The Child's Heredity. By PAUL POPENOE. The Williams & Wilkins Co., Baltimore (British Agents: Bailliere, Tindall & Cox, London). 9/-

This is a well-produced book, written in a pleasant, readable style, which makes it eminently suitable for 'lay' readers, and justifies the claim of the author that this is a guide-book for parents. A point in its favour, also, is that the 418 references which are quoted, instead of being given in footnotes at the bottom of each page, are listed at the end of the book, before the alphabetical index. This, though a minor detail, helps to take away the feeling that one is about to embark on a ponderous scientific treatise where one's attention to the text is constantly being diverted by the necessity of looking to the bottom of the page for fear of missing something important.

The subject is well covered in all its phases—there are too many items to mention each one separately. And it may well serve to some extent as an antidote to those who attribute the whole of the temperament of a child (and thereby of adults too) to the experiences and environment of early childhood: the author proves that many psychological tendencies, as well as physiological characteristics, are inherited simply by the Mendelian law of physical heredity. On the other hand, he does not, perhaps, allow enough for what has been called 'environmental heredity'; in other words, the passing-on of psychological traits from father and mother to children simply because of the atmosphere in which the children live, and of their innate capacity and instinct for imitation of their 'superiors'. It may be quite true to say, as he does, that the basis of temperament is inherited; but, unless we fall into the errors of a mechanistic theory of life, we must explain otherwise the individual variations which are imposed on that basis. (Perhaps, even, it would be more accurate to say that the basis of character is individual, while it is the surface veneer that is inherited: but that is too long a subject to discuss in a review.)

On the whole, it is a book to be recommended to the enquiring parent or layman, who wants to find out whence come his children's physical and moral traits. It is, however, not popular science in the rather derogatory sense of the term, but a clear, if rather technical, statement of the case for physical heredity. It should be read in conjunction with other books which give the psychological aspect of the subject.

L. J. B.

The English Public School. (The English Heritage Series.) By BERNARD DARWIN. Longmans, Green & Co. 3/6.

This is a disarming sort of book. If you bristle, as perhaps you may, at the connotations of a chapter heading, Mr. Darwin gives you a charming smile, invites you to look round, apologises for the very thing you were about to criticise, and takes you to look at something else. Which, in a work that would be out of place if polemic, is exactly as it should be. When he has at last waved you an ingratiating farewell, you may eventually, of course, resume your normal attitude of mind. One could, for example, imagine a pretty debate on Empire builders, organised games or justification by the commonplace. But whether you be a conservative or an iconoclast, or anything in between, Mr. Darwin will carefully refrain from treading on your toes, and incidentally give you one or two little things to think about. The book is well done if not particularly well produced.

O. J. H.

Back to the Hadow Report. Published by the N.U.W.T.

The N.U.W.T. has always shown a lively interest in the problems of education. The recommendations of the Hadow Report, which sought to abolish the 'caste' system, and to establish an 'end-on' system which gives primary education to all children to the age of eleven plus, and post-primary education to all children above that age, have already been applied in part or in whole in some of the educational areas of this country. The Report itself insisted that if modern schools are to rank as secondary schools they must be organised under conditions approximating to those in secondary schools of the usual type. Moreover, the Report pronounced emphatically in favour of separate departments for senior girls and senior boys. This pamphlet adds that all progressive educationists are agreed as to the tremendous advance that has been made in the teaching of infants during the last ten or fifteen years, and that the "Infants' Department must exist as a separate unity."

Now the N.U.W.T. knows of many instances where these recommendations are ignored; has evidence that there is an increase in the number of infants' schools which are to be absorbed either in junior mixed, girls' or mixed schools; and is, above all, doubtful about the amenities being granted that should accompany any sort of post-primary education. For these and other reasons they have adopted the slogan, *Back to the Hadow Report*. The pamphlet contains some arresting suggestions, e.g. "There is no place in our educational system for the selective central school as a separate unit." There is a growing body of educational opinion which would go further than this, and suggest that the proper way to implement the end-on system, as well as to cure the caste system,

would be the institution of the 'common school,' where all types of ability could be catered for under the same roof.

Be this as it may, *Back to the Hadow Report* is a well-thought-out, clear, and well-written document that can be recommended to the study of all who take an interest in the changing educational scene.

J. H. L.

League of Nations Educational Survey. League of Nations, Geneva. 2/-.

This is the first number of a pamphlet which was published in Geneva in July, 1929, and which is to appear twice yearly. Its aim is the instruction of youth in the aims of the League of Nations.

It is divided roughly into two parts. The first gives an account of an enquiry made in the schools of Bradford, Yorks, as to the effect of war films on children from 10-16 years. A *questionnaire* was sent out to schools of varying types, and the replies show conclusively that the films have not inflamed the minds of the children towards a love of war, but entirely the reverse. To the question, "What did the film make you think of war?" over 95 per cent of the answers were anti-war.

How far this is the direct result of the incidents portrayed on the films, and how far it may be the echo of public opinion abroad and of influence at home, it is difficult to say. But only 8 per cent of the answers suggest any alternatives to war, and a still smaller percentage mention the League of Nations, the Courts of Arbitration, or the Permanent Court of International Justice.

The Survey stresses this fact and finds that more systematic teaching on the history of the past twenty years, the Great War, and the political conditions that have arisen out of it, is urgently needed. It suggests the use of the films which have been published by the Nations' Union Film Committee: "The Star of Hope" and "The World War and After." The greater part of the remainder of the Survey is given to reports from nine different countries, including the United States, as to what is already being done in colleges and schools in the teaching of internationalism and giving suggestions for further activities. Among these are exchange of teachers between countries, school children visitors from other countries, holiday exchanges of school children, and holiday international camps.

But the most significant thing in all the reports is that they are unanimous that, while definite instruction in the League and in internationalism may profitably be given to adult students in training colleges, in schools it is the teachers who must keep themselves abreast of the doings and publications of the League, and that this most valuable teaching must be imparted to the children, not as a separate subject of instruction, but as bearing upon whatever they are learning at school.

It appears that teachers in increasing numbers realise the obligation which devolves upon them, and are applying to the League for such publications as the one under review and "The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations," published in 1926. (Education and the League of Nations. Price 3d., from the League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.).

A Little Book on Intellectual Co-operation. By B. BRADFIELD, M.A., in co-operation with PHILIP S. HENRY.

The Covenant of the League of Nations binds member States to join forces in order to promote international co-operation—"men's minds must be disarmed and their thoughts turned towards peace, or it is useless to attempt by other means to achieve it." For this object the League established in 1922 the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and in 1924 the French Government founded (and partially maintains) in Paris the Institute which is the centre of the work of the Committee.

The little book under review gives a comprehensive account of the many activities of the Committee, whose "main objects are to bring together scholars, writers, thinkers of all countries—to help forward their work by improving tools and conditions and to bring about a general mingling of the great intellectual currents of the world."

Through its numerous sub-divisions the Committee concerns itself with almost every field of activity and of thought. From the first it took a lively interest in the education of youth in international questions, and it publishes a periodical summary on the work of the League, especially prepared for the teaching profession, and an educational survey which is to appear twice yearly. A Liaison Committee has also now been formed.

The study of international politics, the possibility of an international lending library, the more general and intelligent use of museums and of libraries, the exchange of books between countries, their cheaper rate of transport and swifter circulation, the more adequate remuneration of those "who are dedicated [in the words of Professor Zimmern] to the public service of thinking," all these questions and many more are made the careful inquiry of numerous sub-committees. But of special interest is the finding of the Committee as to the uses of the cinema and its suggestions for its still further development. It hails this most potent modern medium for influencing the people, for it is intrinsically international, it has overcome the barrier of differences of language, and its potency in forming public opinion can scarcely be over-estimated.

In the last chapter the writer discusses the need of a common international language: he does not hold the view that English will do for all, but, having sat through interminable translations at assembly meetings, he welcomes the action of the Committee in inquiring into the possibility of establishing a universal language which shall be accepted by all nations. He holds no brief for Esperanto, but says that it is increasingly clear that some auxiliary language is imperatively required in deliberations between all the countries of the world.

Motion Pictures in Education. By D. C. ELLIS and L. THORNBOROUGH. Harrap. 8/6.

In the Introduction, a former U.S. Commissioner of Education describes the motion picture as "most valuable" among the "helpful concrete material... for self-activity in analyzing, organising and interpreting." The authors, Mr. Ellis, Chief of the Education Section of the Forest Service and Director of the Motion Picture Section of the Department of Agriculture of the United States, and Miss

Thornborough, Film Editor for the U.S. Government—with experience in schools and in journalism—are obviously in a position to treat the problem of the picture in schools technically and educationally. They succeed in their aim of discussing fully "difficulties . . . shortcomings and limitations . . . advantages", and presenting "recommendations based upon accepted principles of pedagogy, correct reasoning, sound investigation, observation and experiment, as to . . . methods".

Two chapters deal historically with visual aids in education, and development of the instructional motion picture in the United States. Experiments are described, seeming to show that the film is more effective than the 'still' picture, or than textbook or teacher. But the authors claim only an auxiliary place for the motion picture: it should be used by a skilful teacher. Chapter IX, *How to Use the Film in Teaching* (Elem., Sec., and Higher), and X, *Some Successfully Applied Methods*, give valuable hints.

Evidently Britain is far behind the United States in the use of this valuable help to education; since there is an 11-page Appendix giving a list of distributors who lend or hire out films for 'instructional use'. They include commercial companies (*e.g.* Homestead Films, Inc.), non-commercial companies (such as the American Humane Society), educational institutions, many universities and some State departments; the United States Government; manufacturing firms; railroads.

Those interested in the subject should get into touch with the International New Education Film Society, Hon. Sec., Miss Cruttwell, Castlegate, St. Andrews, Fife.
M. H.

An Outline of Musical History. By THOMAS J. HEWITT and RALPH HILL. The Hogarth Press. Two vols. at 2/6 each.

As explained in the author's foreword, these two small volumes are intended to supply in a concise form a reliable outline of musical history, showing the gradual development of the art from the earliest times about which we have records up to the later Romantic composers, among whom are classed Debussy, MacDowell, Delius and Elgar. The authors may be congratulated on having achieved their aim and supplied two very readable and informative volumes. These would serve as an excellent introduction to the vast subject of musical history, and prove of value to students preparing for the examinations in music which now form part of the syllabus of the higher schools examination and matriculation.

The clear type and arrangement of the matter, together with the very reasonable price of these volumes, should recommend them to the notice of schools and teachers of music.

M. A. CARNELL

Youth in a World of Men. By MRS. MARIETTA JOHNSON. John Day Co. (New York). \$2.50.

A book full of brisk, snappy pages and strong emotional and mental reactions. Often right, often wrong, often platitudinous, always stimulating, never dull.

Mrs. Johnson rushes along like a non-stop express. Sometimes I would like to stop the train and look at the scenery. But no; not with this writer in charge. But after reading many authors who go on labouring the point long after any intelligent mind

has grasped it, there is at any rate here the joy of movement and rapidity.

Let us take a sample of her over-hasty type of conclusion. She says: "John Knox cried out, 'O Lord, give me Scotland or I die!' He desired above everything that Scotland should receive his message, and of course Scotland did." That "of course" is (of course) absurd. A girl may desire above everything to be a film star, and end as waitress in a third-class restaurant. A man may desire above everything to be Prime Minister, and end by shouting clap-trap at Hyde Park Corner on Saturday evenings. Napoleon's will to dominate Europe was at least as great as Knox's will to dominate Scotland. Yet Napoleon failed.

"Reading and writing should be postponed till the ninth or tenth year." Surely not. In a world full of books, newspapers, shop signs, public notices, advertisements and so forth, surely a child will be mentally very dull if he does not feel an urge long before the ninth year to know what all this printing means. Many a bright child teaches himself to read before he is six. Mrs. Johnson tells us that to "depend on the book, rather than on experience, leads to much cloudy thinking". I suppose it would be unkind to ask her why she has added another to the millions of books already in existence! Isn't our thinking cloudy enough already?

But though I cannot resist having this tilt at Mrs. Johnson, I want to say in all seriousness that hers is a breezy and pleasantly provocative book.

W. PLATT

Books Children Like Best. By J. LLOYD JONES and E. T. OWEN. With an Introduction by DR. GEO. H. GREEN. Welsh Outlook Press. 6d.

This little publication describes an investigation carried out by two headmasters of elementary schools and is evidence of the increasing use of psychology as a guide to teachers. Too often have we as teachers assumed a knowledge of the interests of the child, and proceeded from a purely subjective opinion to decide upon our schemes of work. Indeed, we have been guilty of deciding ourselves what our pupils shall learn and how they shall learn it. Often very little use has been made of the innate curiosity of children—it has even been discouraged. The result has largely been, therefore, the development of formalised education, a rattling of dry bones!

We are beginning to realise that to be of lasting and formative use, education must be a living process. Real interests must be actively engaged and teaching must have regard for the scholar rather than for the logical mind of the teacher. The approach to learning must henceforth be psychological.

That is why efforts such as this by practical teachers are to be welcomed. The booklet deals with a field far too little explored. In America much has already been done, especially by men like Dewey; but it needs to be done everywhere, for there is no such thing as a uniform child.

The tabulation of the results could be improved if the booklet is ever developed into something bigger. In this case also some attempt at generalisation could be made and a separate bibliography provided in the senior groups for the two sexes. The bibliography given is graded for age and classified for subject, and is intended to be representative of a scheme of reading which will embrace the whole world and its literature. Dominant interests at

different ages are seen and the spirit of adventure and romance are clearly the inspiration of adolescence. It is for us teachers to direct these interests towards altruistic ends and to sublimate ultimately those natural trends which, wrongly directed, make for war.

F. E.

Oliver Untwisted. By M. A. PAYNE. Edward Arnold & Co. 3/6 net.

This excellent little book should not only find its way into the hands of all whose ministry to children brings them into contact with the hundreds of little unfortunates who inhabit state institutions and various homes supported at public expense or by voluntary contributions, but it should also be read by all who are a factor in the education and training of all little children.

Actually the ideas contained in the book may not be new in themselves to those who have already studied the work of pioneers who have attempted to make life bearable for children, who for one reason or another are obliged to grow up or spend many years of their lives in the most soul-destroying atmosphere of a poor law institution or a reformatory. The value of this charming little book lies in its sympathetic and readable presentation. Its narrative form may well appeal to those who prefer something that seems more like real life than the bulk of records of case histories or statistics of educational research.

The author is much to be congratulated upon her achievement and will probably be rewarded as she deserves by realising in the future that her book, written as the outcome of her courageous and successful experiment, will encourage others to use their influence to the utmost to introduce similar understanding methods of dealing with difficult children into other homes and institutions.

MARY CHADWICK

The Case for Nursery Schools. By THE EDUCATION ENQUIRY COMMITTEE. George Philip & Son. 4/-

A very concise, well-planned book this. It gives a clear, practical account of the work that has been done in the past for the child under seven years old, and also it gives useful information and suggestions for the development of such work in the future.

Existing nursery schools are described in words and in illustrations, and an account of their premises, staffing, cost, diet and method is given.

There were some points about which there might be two opinions. For instance, though all must agree that for children of pre-school age a garden is a most necessary part of the premises, there is something to be said against the Committee's finding that an open-air school is the ideal when the climate of England is considered. Again, though one admits the importance of avoiding a break in a child's education at 5 years old, some of us could not whole-heartedly echo the Committee's words about "the unfortunate divorce between the nursery school and the elementary school system". One remembers the compensating gains of freedom to experiment, the impetus of an entirely new start unhampered by traditions and an out-grown psychology. And, as the Committee point out, it is these

individual pioneer nursery schools that have shown how "to combine nurture with education". It may be, however, that now the experimental stage passed and nursery school principles firmly established, the schools would develop more rapidly by being attached to existing elementary schools, and cease being regarded as a special service. Among many very interesting suggestions is the proposal that post-primary girls should learn practical home-craft and child psychology in the nursery schools.

C. M. EVER

Marriage and Morals. By BERTRAND RUSSELL. (Allen & Unwin. 7/6.

"The essence of a good marriage is respect for each other's personality combined with that deep intimacy, physical, mental, and spiritual, which makes a serious love between man and woman the most fructifying of all human experiences. Such love, like everything that is great and precious, demands its own morality . . . but such marriage can only be achieved in a society of individuals whose attitude to sex is based on understanding rather than upon ignorance and repression.

Children from the earliest years should be introduced naturally to the functions of the body, including the sex function. Much of the violence, persecution and hatred in the world to-day are, in the author's opinion, due to a warped and inhibited attitude to sex caused by the shame and prudery with which sex is presented to the young. Many seemingly stupid children are so because their curiosity concerning sex has been crudely checked, the inhibition affecting all the other fundamental curiosities which a child has in regard to its environment.

Marriage should not become a concern of the state until children are involved. All other voluntary relationships of men and women should be entirely a private matter between themselves, and not subjected to interference either by the state or by public opinion. These are a few of the ideas in this challenging book.

J. S.

Those Teeth of Yours. By J. MENZIES CAMPBELL. Heinemann. 3/6.

This popular guide to better teeth should be read particularly by mothers ignorant of the dangers caused by dental neglect. Written in simple language about the importance of preventing dental disease, it shows how easily this can be accomplished if the elementary facts of dentistry are understood. As a dentist himself, the author is able to map out the way to better health, and to the possession of sound teeth.

NEW BOOKS TO BE REVIEWED LATER

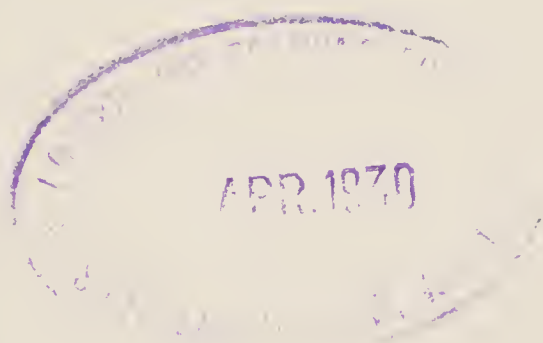
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The Training of Elementary Teachers in Germany. By TH. ALEXANDER.





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IT IS RIGHT THAT THE SPECIAL ISSUE OF THE "NEW ERA" WHICH COMMEMORATES THE END OF THE FIRST DECADE IN THE LIFE OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS SHOULD BE DEVOTED TO THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

What is history? It is the attempt of man to fix in his memory those things in the past that really matter. Out of the infinite multitude of events that are every minute happening and being forgotten, history selects a few, writes down an account of them, studies how they came about, and teaches them to after generations.

But how does history select the things that matter? To begin with, no doubt, it is the instinctive human memory that remembers some things and not others, or partly remembers and partly invents. Then the careful historian comes and compares the different stories and verifies the alleged facts; but he still, for the most part, accepts the selection made for him.

And what a dreadful selection it mostly is! If you read most national histories you get a feeling of horror at the incessant crimes, miseries, and all-pervading selfishness; you wonder if the human race is really as base as all that. The fact is that the conventional history selects its material on just the same principles as the sensational newspaper. A crime is news; a fight is news; an accident, a scandal, a "horror" or "tragedy" of any kind is news; good effective human life is not news at all. Again, conventional history, like the sensational newspaper, is interested in the people who happen to be before the public at the time—an emperor, a film star, a murderer; it is not interested in either things or people because they are really interesting or really important. Most of the important creative work going on in the world, most of the really interesting thoughts and lives, are entirely ignored by newspapers and by history.

Hitherto, speaking roughly, the thing to which history has given most attention is war. War used to be, in the eyes of history, the supreme test of a nation's worth; the defeated nation, the unsuccessful general, were written down as inferior things. The conqueror was a hero and had a statue. War was the way to freedom. It was the great method for removing injustices. It was the climax of human effort. And now the whole civilized world has realised that war is both an evil and an avoidable evil, and all the great nations have solemnly renounced it.

Clearly, history must change her scheme of values. She must try to discover what things are really important, what are really interesting; what things, if war is gone, are able to stir the heart as war did, and inspire men with the same devotion and self-sacrifice. One cannot yet see the answer to that question, but one can see the region in which it will be found: in the help of man by man, of nation by nation, in the binding together of human minds and wills to make possible greater heights of human achievement.

Gilbert Murray

THE OUTLOOK TOWER

SITTING in the observation car of "The Chief", the luxury train from Chicago to Los Angeles, in the last days of the 'twenties of this century, what a kaleidoscopic picture passes through one's mind! One is filled with admiration for the early pioneers who faced unknown perils at the urge of man's desire to conquer space, and awed by the stupendous changes wrought in so short a period by motor-car, plane and radio. At present the 3,000 miles from Los Angeles to London can be covered in eight or nine days; but even this will be reduced. "Al" Smith of New York is putting up an eighty-storey building with a 200-foot mast for the regular trans-Atlantic airship service he anticipates, while the first floating hotel is being built in the middle of the ocean between New York and Bermuda—a first step towards bridging the Atlantic. Man has brought about a physical unification of the globe. But he is still unsatisfied with his conquests. His instinct persists, and is adventuring into other realms.

Youth to-day is trying to adjust itself by challenging customs, creeds, dogmas, and doctrines. All these are undergoing a fiery cross-examination, and many are failing to withstand the attack.

The League of Nations, to whose tenth birthday we dedicate this issue, was born of a great need; its birth was preceded by a long travail. These first ten years have necessarily been spent in laying the foundations of a technique of world government. Much has been achieved. A visit to the League Headquarters, a study of its many ramifications, make one realise that the League is doing something far greater than the settling of disputes between nations. On its constructive, positive side it is attempting to find the master key to problems of the modern world.

The Outlook Tower has already drawn the attention of readers to the Union

Douanière Européenne—M. Briand's idea of a United States of Europe. There is a growing body of intelligent opinion in favour of pan-Europeanism: of the breaking down of tariff barriers, passport restrictions, and custom formalities. Free intercourse in Northern America has done much to stimulate progress there, both material and mental, and to establish certain standards. Anything that will promote free intercourse and friendliness between European nations is good, but the stage is set for larger developments than continental unions. There should be no geographical limitations.

Many incidents could be cited to prove that the world has become one market, that one world price is circulated daily for every commodity that matters—coal, petrol, wheat, rubber, metals. Plans have been submitted in both France and England for joining the two countries by a Channel tunnel; statutes and charta for a world bank have been signed at Baden-Baden. Slowly the world is becoming conscious of itself as a world, but union and co-operation must be universal before a World Commonwealth can be realised.

The greater the growth of unity the greater the need for differentiation. In education, as facilities are extended to all up to 18, it will become more and more necessary to guard against systems which attempt to mould mankind. The needs of each child as an individual should be recognised and satisfied. A varied environment, individual timetables, free power of selection outside the minimum academic requirements, and adjusted examinations, will allow these individual differences to expand.

Most of the foremost thinkers of to-day are stressing the need for fostering world consciousness. H. G. Wells refers to the race between education and destruction. The President of the United States gives warning that another world war would

be "the cemetery of white civilisation". The question of peace is undoubtedly the most vital issue before the nations to-day. The Kellogg Pact, the Hoover-Macdonald Declaration, the Five Power Conference, are stages in an attempt to cure ourselves of insanity. But the lasting cure is not to be found in discussion on the floor of legislative bodies. It is a matter of the education of the men and women of the future in a spirit of tolerance and friendship. Democracy is not yet safe for the world. As General Smuts declared in the Sidgwick Memorial Lecture, the influence of national passions must be seriously moderated and as far as possible eliminated, if war as an instrument of national policy is to disappear. "It [war] will not go, its malign influence in the affairs of the world will not be abated or neutralised until you realise that no child in school to-day is too young to begin his education in these fundamentals." These words should be echoed in every classroom in the world. Peace cannot be taught. It can be obtained only when the world has been liberated from the fears, greeds and ambitions which belong to the childhood of humanity. Prejudices between nation and nation, between branches of the same nation, between colour and colour, between religions, are rife and strong, growing as green leaves on a tree whose stem is Jealousy and whose roots are Fear. The hope of peace is with schools in which instruction is superseded by education. We want more and more schools where children grow to realise the solidarity of mankind. Valuable as formal teaching can be, it is the type of school, the atmosphere, the teachers' point of view, the right attitude, that will best foster the art of human relations. Above all, perhaps, we should attempt to inculcate the power of thought, of seeing both sides of a question, and of forming balanced judgments.

Any general enquiry into the teaching of History in different countries shows that the syllabus is dominated by examinations set by history specialists—people who apparently disregard the fundamen-

tal value of history as the means of arousing in children the feeling that they are actors in a great play staged upon the globe. As always, we deprecate any attempt during normal school life to specialise before the age of 16. The idea of an alternative syllabus such as that outlined by Dr. Lloyd seems worthy of very careful consideration, as a possible immediate step. Such a syllabus makes knowledge of the key problems of our civilisation possible and, as Dr. Harold Rugg has pointed out, democracy will surely stand or fall according to the average citizen's knowledge.

Dr. Rugg's "Social Studies" are a still more fundamental reform than any syllabus of one isolated subject. When the psychology of wholeness has permeated the curriculum, historical facts will no longer be stored in a watertight compartment.

In this transition period it is particularly important that every citizen be made aware of what one may term the 'tender spots' of the world: problems like those of the black races, the minorities, smouldering race prejudices, unemployment. It is, of course, exceedingly difficult for the average teacher to be informed of specific situations in different parts of the world, and more material needs to be at hand to help him.

We agree whole-heartedly with Professor Zimmern that if the League is to do the work it should, a new intellectual basis must be found and an international attitude must become second nature. Internationalism does not mean disparagement of nationality: it is nationalism in its complete setting.

Definite and well-organised effort is being made to familiarise children in school with the aims and activities of the League. Since 1925 League experts have been considering the best methods of "co-ordinating all official and non-official efforts, designed . . . to train the younger generation to regard international co-operation as the normal method of conducting world affairs". The Teachers' Declaration of 1927 supported the experts' recommendations and the League of Nations Union

has been very active. Most teachers are acquainted with its little booklets entitled *Teachers and World Peace* and *The League in the Schools of the World*. The first contains valuable suggestions for explaining the aims and work of the League in schools: schemes of lessons, outlines of courses, suggestions for debates and talks, lists of slides, charts, maps, ideas for pageants. The Educational Surveys recently published by the League Secretariat are the first of a series dealing with education as a means towards furthering the spirit of international co-operation. Of great interest are the findings of an enquiry into the effects of war films on children's opinions, and an article by Miss E. M. Gilpin on International Holiday Gatherings (Vol. 1, No. 2, cf. p. 111). Definite efforts are being made in the States to bring about better understanding of foreign affairs, to encourage friendly relationships with other countries, by means of countless study circles and other organisations.

All this is encouraging. With Dr. Gooch we believe that the League is the logical and natural consummation of the whole process of human development, but we must beware of imposing judgments. To quote his own words, "the teacher will have laid a solid foundation of character if he can set the childish mind on its guard against the glamour of material triumph and convince it that real greatness does not work for itself alone".

* * * *

World Conferences

A prominent American educator wrote somewhat scathingly of World Conferences in general, and of the Elsinore Conference in particular. But world conferences are only in their infancy and a suitable technique has yet to grow out of experience. It is only when one attempts to work with people from forty or fifty nations that the practical difficulties become realisable; and this very realisation is an important step towards co-operation. We agree whole-heartedly that in the N.E.F. Conferences more time for real

discussion should be provided and the level of discussion raised. To this end international commissions are being formed in the various fields of educational development, to deal with the preliminaries, and when the study groups come together again in 1932 they should be well prepared. Apart from this, the N.E.F. Conferences have proved their value. They have drawn isolated pioneers into a definite movement, giving them the strength of union. They have introduced leaders from various countries to each other. The fellowships and friendships formed outside the lectures have been more fruitful, perhaps, than many academic discussions. Certainly whole series of events are traceable to Fellowship stimulus. The coming of a number of folk at considerable self-sacrifice generates an atmosphere which, though not measurable, is a reality to which hundreds of teachers testify, and which means so much to them that they come to all the Conferences.

International School at Geneva

In September we visited the International School at Geneva. Its nursery school is in Champel, and is under the care of Mlle Ferrière. In the first class the Montessori method is followed chiefly, in the second the Decroly method, and in the third the Winnetka technique. After 14 years of age preparation is made for four examinations: Swiss maturity, French baccalaureate, English matriculation, and American college entrance. English and French are the common languages of the school. There are 192 children, boys and girls about equally divided, and the staff includes nineteen teachers of nine nationalities.

School Journeys

In many countries organised school journeys form part of the curriculum. Many German schools organise a journey either in Germany or in an adjoining country, the plans forming a school project and providing material for many different studies. Sometimes these are paid for by the Education Authorities, sometimes each

scholar contributes. The cost is kept low by walking, cycling, camping, and exchange hospitality. At the Decroly School, Brussels, each senior class goes for a week's excursion at the end of the school year as the culmination of some project of study. Youth is, in fact, on the move. Scouts and Guides are hiking across Europe, members of the Honourable Company of Friendly Adventurers are sleeping in the world-famous Rhine castles, school parties are going abroad. But with all this activity, thought has not been sufficiently expanded for the majority of parents and teachers to realise that a week spent in organised excursions, discussion and fellowship, can be as—if not more—valuable than a week of formal lessons.

Progressive Schools

A 'progressive' school is often very narrowly understood as a school with an activity programme. The real progressive school is one in which the Principal and staff are in tune with the spirit of the times. In many secondary schools it is not as yet possible to adopt the whole new programme of curriculum and teaching, but a teacher can, even in the traditional school, give her pupils this wider consciousness. "Little men are known by what they do—great men by what they are", is true in the teaching profession. It is what the teacher is that unconsciously influences his pupils.

On principle one disapproves of projects being selected by teachers—and the same ones occurring again year after year in the same form. One feels that a real project should develop out of group interests and out of living and working together; but this really depends on the teacher. Entering a classroom in which nine-year-olds always studied Greek civilisation, my critical attitude was soon changed to enthusiasm. The teacher explained how during three successive years the group had developed along different lines. One year, appreciation of Ancient Greece gave expression in original poems and stories, the second year in drawing, pottery and sculpture, and the third in drama. In all

three years the work was well above the average. The secret lay in the fact that the teacher's interest in Ancient Greece was vital. To her its message was an ever-growing spiritual experience which she unconsciously transmitted to the children as interest and force. Why did the whole group express this interest in the same way? Perhaps because the flame was passed from the teacher to certain leaders in the class, and they in turn handed it on.

An Annual Toy Shop

A fine example of a living school community project is the Annual Toy Shop at the Francis Parker School, Chicago. The children and parents of this school devote time during the last fortnight of the Christmas term to making and mending toys to be given to poor children in Chicago. The parents bring the money for new materials; the children bring their old toys; the teachers organise. All extra curriculum activity periods are given to this work, and gymnasium and craft shops are converted into toy factories. One evening all the parents come and work! It was fascinating to see City men with their coats off sawing wood, mending and making mechanical toys! The result was little short of miraculous. The toys made and mended were first class and included 300 dolls' wooden beds, painted and decorated, 200 carts, 100 hobby horses, 100 stations, 100 engines with two carriages, 3,000 candy bags, and at least 200 dolls, repainted, recurled, and redressed! We saw a child of eight absorbed for two hours recurling a doll's hair with an electric curling iron! The different forms in turn chose the toys and labelled them, a boy of eight choosing for a boy of eight, a girl of eleven for a girl of her own age. All the toys were packed by the parents, who each filled his car and delivered in a certain district. The whole project correlated efficient craftsmanship, organisation, account-keeping, ingenuity, creative ability, parent co-operation and sociology. Senior children were allowed to submit designs for new toys, together with a

description of how several hundred could be organised.

New Education Fellowship

It is very fitting that in this number of the *New Era* dedicated to the League, announcement should be made of two important steps towards international co-operation which have been taken by the New Education Fellowship. Affiliation between the Fellowship and the Progressive Education Association of America has been negotiated and the Fellowship has also become a founding member of the Bureau International d'Education in Geneva.

Affiliation of the N.E.F. and the P.E.A.

The two organisations will remain autonomous but now offer a joint membership, carrying with it the usual membership privileges of both associations, including receipt of the *New Era* (monthly from July of this year) and of *Progressive Education* (monthly). The joint membership subscription has been fixed at 24/- (\$6.00) per annum. The Headquarters of the Fellowship in America will be at the office of the Progressive Education Association in Washington, and it is probable that a member of the Fellowship's staff will be permanently attached.

The N.E.F. and the B.I.E.

The Fellowship's membership of the Bureau International d'Education will

enable the two organisations to co-operate more closely, especially in undertaking enquiries and research work. A member of the Fellowship's staff in Geneva will be attached to the B.I.E. headquarters, and will deal with matters that are related to the Fellowship's special field of work.

Members of the Fellowship are in truth giving their support to an organised world movement which allows no barriers to come between those who play so large a part in forming in the young that international understanding necessary for the right approach to international problems of the future.

The Great New Era Adventure

As the Fellowship spreads in many lands and many fields we have felt the need of a central magazine linking up the different units. We believe that the *New Era*, as a monthly supported by pioneer educators all over the world, can play a part in helping to adjust education to modern needs, in helping to liberate thought, in helping to build up world consciousness.

It is not a commercial proposition. Success depends on everyone interested becoming a co-operator in the undertaking, and we must rely on the active support of readers to make the monthly publication a worthwhile adventure.

B. E.

D. V. H.

History as a Training for Citizenship

By G. P. Gooch, M.A., D.Litt., F.B.A.

(A Lecture delivered on 6 January before the Conference of Educational Associations,
University College, London)

It is an axiom that democracy makes a larger demand on the individual citizen than any other form of Government. In terms of political machinery it means cutting up power into little bits, counting heads instead of breaking them—the rule of the common man. In terms of social ethics it means government by discussion, the sharing of responsibility, the methods of compromise and accommodation. We are members of a society dedicated to the bracing principle of self-determination, in which each one of us is at once a subject and a sovereign; and it is the dream of our hearts to share in training the citizens of the future for their duties and destiny. To the writer and teacher of history in a democratic community such as ours falls a task which can be performed by no one else, a service of vital significance and utility to which we can never devote too much study and reflection.

In putting forward such a resonant claim for history as a factor in the making of citizens, I must be allowed to define it in my own way; for our estimate of its value must obviously depend on our conception of its nature. History as I learned it at school, over forty years ago, was barren of intellectual stimulus and civic inspiration; for it was presented as a string of more or less unrelated occurrences. To-day, thanks to the devoted labours of a generation of writers and teachers, we realise that it is the record and interpretation of the life of humanity; that it is concerned with man's ideas and ideals no less than with his physical needs, with the pilgrimage of the spirit no less than the strength of his hands. *Historicus sum: nihil humani alienum puto.* And to-day we proceed from the whole to the part, not from the part to the whole. Now that we know the story of mankind in all its length and breadth, it is easier to visualise and understand; for the vast structure is held together by the simple conception of growth from savagery to civilisation, and every chapter falls into its place as a stage and a stepping-stone in the Great Adventure.

To-day is not only the child of yesterday, but the heir of all the ages.

Assuming, therefore, that history is broadly conceived and intelligently taught, let us discuss its function in the training of our citizens. Its first task assuredly is to enable us to understand the world into which we are born and the stage on which we are called to play our part. Our birthplace gives a direction and a definition to our thought from which few of us ever escape. Though our blood, our language and our religion for the most part have come to us from abroad, the scene on which we open our eyes wears a very different aspect if we view it from the meridian of Greenwich, from the Latin South, Eastern Europe, or the New World; and the differences multiply if we travel beyond the frontiers of Christianity and the home of white-skinned man. But this inevitable limitation has its advantages; for it simplifies the task of the teacher and enables the budding citizen to adapt his lungs to the atmosphere he is fated to breathe. Moreover, with the aid of knowledge and imagination we can eliminate the crudest forms of local bias, and do justice to other varieties of human experience. The first and greatest lesson that the citizen has to learn is that the human family is greater than any of its constituent parts; that civilisation is a co-operative achievement, a common heritage and a joint responsibility; that every national unit is connected with the larger life of mankind by a thousand channels and contacts, visible and invisible. Only if the growing mind is flooded with the conception of the unity of civilisation, the essential oneness of the human race, which came in with Christianity and the jurists of Imperial Rome, can it see the world of the twentieth century in proper perspective, and understand the practical tasks which it presents.

Next in importance among history's services in the training of the citizen is the interpretation of the narrower stage in which he is born. Geography is the mother of

history, and our young Englishmen must be taught to understand that our island position is the key to our national development. Command of the narrow seas has been the condition of our survival and the basis of our colonial expansion. The watchword of Halifax, "Look to your moat", has been the guiding principle of our foreign policy for centuries, and must so remain, till security is provided by other means in a renovated world. The unbroken rampart of our wooden walls has enabled us to erect the stately edifice of our liberties at leisure, undisturbed by the alarms inseparable from an open frontier, and unfettered by the concentration of power natural in a community perpetually fighting for its life. The effective training of the British citizen has begun when he realises that the greatness of his country rests on the related principles of Sea Power and self-determination. The differences between British and Continental mentality are unintelligible till we recognise that security allowed us to outgrow autocracy, to exalt the civilian above the soldier, to develop the independence of law, and to foster the emergence of the common man. There is no more precious element in our national heritage than the sturdy individualism which bids defiance alike to subjection and to standardisation.

As the young citizen learns the framework, the tradition and the tendencies of the community in which his lot is cast, the instinct of service and mutual aid comes into play. The visualisation of a great inheritance suggests the continuity of our national life and awakens a sentiment of individual responsibility. "Thou hast inherited Sparta; adorn her." The teaching of civics is a very recent addition to the curriculum, and opinions naturally differ as to how it should be taught. But there is general agreement that it must be founded on history, and that our institutions and the principles they embody can only be understood in their historical evolution. "Why should history be studied?" asked Seeley, in his Inaugural Lecture at Cambridge, sixty years ago. "Because it is the school of statesmanship," he replied. "Our University is, and must be, a great seminary of politicians. Without at least a little knowledge of history no man can take a rational interest in politics, and no man can form a rational judgment about them without a

good deal." What Seeley said of politics is broadly true of civics; for the citizen should strive not only to master the elements of our community life, but also to form an independent valuation of their activities and influence.

The citizen of to-day has only begun his education when he has assimilated the institutions and the traditions of his country; for he is no less concerned with its relation to other countries, and to the larger problems which affect whole empires, continents and hemispheres. Men of my generation are old enough to remember the time when the Colonies aroused but scanty interest and when the dependencies, apart from India, claimed but little of our attention. In half a century the white portion of our overseas Empire has grown into a Commonwealth of free nations, held together by sentiment alone; and our dark-skinned fellow-subjects, who are governed from Whitehall, are slowly climbing the steps of the ladder of self-determination under our sympathetic guidance. This extension of the theory and practice of free institutions throughout the vast expanse of our Empire is one of the main features of recent world history, and illustrates anew our devotion to the principle of ordered liberty by which we have grown and thriven at home.

Though our brothers overseas, speaking our tongue and sharing our traditions, make a special appeal, the Englishman can never turn his back on Europe or ignore the manifold contacts of politics, economics and culture. In no direction can history more usefully prepare the citizen for his duties than by explaining to him in broad outline the development and characteristics of the chief nations of the Continent. We must tell him, for instance, how France has striven for what she calls her natural frontiers; how Germany and Italy achieved the national unity of which they had dreamed so long; how Russia instinctively reached out towards warm water; how the peoples of the Middle Danube were held together for centuries by the Hapsburg dynasty; how the Turks, who had flowed into South-eastern Europe like a tidal wave in the days of their strength, were gradually pushed back by the Balkan races as they caught the morning rays of nationalism and secured the aid of one or more of the Great Powers; how certain nations, such as Sweden, Holland and

Spain, exhausted by superhuman efforts, have fallen behind in the race. And beyond the frontiers of Europe we have nowadays to fit into our mental panorama the United States, the South American Republics, and the immemorial civilisations of the Far East. As the stage thus widens, the needs of the intelligent citizen proportionately increase; and the key to the labyrinth is supplied by history alone. Countries, institutions, religions can no more be understood from a flashlight photograph than the complex personality of the individual, for living bodies, like living beings, are only real and intelligible in the light of their past. If it be argued that I am asking too much of the citizen of to-morrow, I reply that a complacent provincialism is fatal to perspective and has become hopelessly out of date in an increasingly unified world. For the history of every country is the story of contact and exchange, of giving and getting all through the centuries. We toss the ball to one another across seas and frontiers, and it is thus that we advance.

During the last ten years a new opportunity and a new obligation have come to the writer and teacher of history. The citizen of the post-war world must be trained to understand and to fulfil the duties imposed upon his country and himself by the creation of the League of Nations. It is childish to accuse or suspect of propaganda those of us who endeavour to relate the new institution to the main stream of European history; to compare and contrast it with previous efforts at international organisation in the Middle Ages and the nineteenth century; to explain how the rapidly growing interdependence of mankind facilitates and necessitates a more ambitious and sustained endeavour to secure the preservation of peace and carry on the international business of the world. If we have written history in the right way before 1914, there is no need to alter a comma because the League of Nations came into being in 1920. If, however, we dwelt too exclusively in our national tabernacles or overstressed the element of material struggle, it is well that the coming of the League should have called attention to the deeper unity of civilisation and to the efforts of statesmen and thinkers of the past to build up an international order. To me, at any rate, the League is the logical and natural consummation of the whole process of

human development. For the instinct of association is as old and as enduring as the instinct of strife. Patriotism is not enough, either in scholarship or in citizenship. A factor of incalculable significance has come into our lives, and it is our plain duty to show not only what it is and what it does, but why and how it came into existence. Civilisation is organisation, and the League is the latest and most hopeful of human experiments. The Middle Ages invented the noble conception of the *Respublica Christiana*—the interdependence of different communities paying homage to the same fundamental principles of conduct and belief. We cannot restore that ideal, and we would not if we could. The world has enlarged its boundaries since the sixteenth century, and a common religious faith can no longer serve as a cement. But we must revive the kernel of the mediæval conception, and found it on the basis of our common humanity.

I have hitherto spoken of the contribution of history to the training for citizenship in terms of intellectual illumination; but it has also a definite task to perform on the ethical plane. The awakening mind approaches the past through the medium of the imagination, not through critical judgment or the moral sense. Every child is a partisan. His natural leaning is to the victor, the bold warrior or statesman who sweeps obstacles from his path. But the child, under skilful guidance, is soon willing to look beyond mere success. It is one of the most precious of the services of the teacher to break the spell of the 'great man' by explaining that he must be judged not only by the bulk of his achievements, but by the cause which he served. There should be no difficulty in indicating the difference between Napoleon, whose insane ambition deluged Europe with blood, and Washington, who, after saving his country in the field and serving it in the council-chamber, contentedly retired to the position of a private citizen. The teacher's task is rather to suggest tests than to impose judgments. He will have laid a solid foundation of character if he can set the childish mind on its guard against the glamour of material triumph, and convince it that real greatness does not work for itself alone. Other types must be introduced to his attention, and he will learn from King Alfred and Joan of Arc, Francis of Assisi and Abraham

Lincoln, Wilberforce and Shaftesbury, Livingstone and Nansen, that there is no spiritual radiation without disinterested service. The youthful idealism kindled by such pillars of light may well develop into habits of thought and rules of life. The kernel of history is the growth of civilisation. The conception of civilisation as implying certain standards of order, liberty, justice, morality, culture and material well-being takes shape in the mind of the young citizen and helps him to find meaning and purpose in the pageantry of events; and the conviction that it has been built up, like a coral reef, by the efforts of myriads of men and women may well inspire a determination to take his place among the architects and engineers of a better world.

Listen to the deep organ notes of my honoured friend and teacher, Acton, a man not less eminent as a moralist than as a historian. "The great achievement of history is to develop and perfect and arm conscience." "I exhort you never to debase the moral currency, but to try others by the final maxim that governs your own lives, and to suffer no man and no cause to escape the undying penalty which history has the power to inflict on wrong." "If we lower our standard in history, we cannot uphold it in Church and State." In judging men and things, ethics go before dogma, politics and nationality. "The inflexible integrity of the moral code is to me the secret of the

authority, the dignity and the utility of history."

If this doctrine seems to some of us to overlook the fact that moral ideas, like every other expression of the human spirit, are subject to evolution, we may at any rate find in the study and teaching of history a source of priceless moral stimulus and discipline. She is the healer of past quarrels, the enemy of rancorous hate. Without history there can be no perspective, and without perspective there can be no insight. At her best she is a judge, wiser than any one man, without passion or fear, swayed neither by religion nor race, party nor class, a corrector of injustice, an avenger of innocence. She encourages her votaries to ask for evidence, to allow for bias, to seek and to tell the truth and nothing but the truth. By bidding us apply not less exacting standards to the conduct of our own country than to that of other men, she disciplines and purifies our patriotism. The study of other epochs, races, nations, religions, institutions and customs leads us to wide-hearted appreciation of the higher values; to respectful toleration of differences; and to a conception of civilisation as orchestral, the fruit of effort working along many lines. In the study of history, in a word, we find precisely the synthesis of intellectual enlightenment and moral stimulus which citizenship requires and demands.

The League of Nations and the Teaching of History

By Alfred Zimmern

WHEN I was asked, as one of those connected with the League of Nations' work for international intellectual co-operation, to contribute an article to the *New Era's* special number on the teaching of history, I felt some hesitation. What, it may be reasonably asked, has the League of Nations to do with the teaching of history? The League of Nations is already a part of modern history. But its relationship to historians would seem to be that of object to subject. The business of the League is to make history, not to command historians; and the business of historians is to discover and promulgate the truth about public affairs, whether by writing or by teaching, and not to be influenced by governments.

On reflection, however, it seemed to me that there might be some value in a clear statement by one who, before he became a servant of the League, served his apprenticeship to history, and who still remains loyal to his earlier allegiance.

The League of Nations has never had any direct contact with historians. The organisation of intellectual co-operation is necessarily interested in the co-operation of scholars in all branches of knowledge, and therefore followed with sympathetic interest the organisation, some years ago, of the International Committee of Historical Studies and the International Congress which it subsequently organised at Oslo. But it has never interfered, or dreamed of interfering, in the details of the work undertaken by historians, whether individually or collectively.

On the other hand, its attention has repeatedly been drawn to the influence of history textbooks in moulding the attitude and opinions of the younger generation, and efforts have been made to induce the League to take active steps to influence publication of this character.

It is undeniable that history textbooks exercise an influence over the young, although the degree of such influence is often exaggerated. It is also undeniable that the history textbooks used in numerous countries are far from being perfect specimens either of the historian's or of the

pedagogue's art. But it is a far cry from this to the conclusion that the League should step in and exert what would be not far short of an international censorship.

The whole matter was carefully discussed by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation some years ago. It was felt that the chief evil complained of—the sowing of ill will towards foreign nations—was precisely that for which it was most difficult to find a remedy by League action. Mistakes of fact lend themselves to authoritative correction. But the dislike felt by a writer for a foreign nation may take forms so impalpable and insidious that no rule that could be framed would serve to check it. Who shall presume to pass upon the error of taste, the sly innuendo, the implicit condescension, or the downright omission which a skilled writer could use to conceal a more definite expression of his opinion? The Committee on Intellectual Co-operation therefore fell back upon a procedure for dealing with clear misstatements of fact. It recommended that such errors should be pointed out to the National Committee in the country offended against, and that it should transmit the complaint to the similar committee in the country of the writer. The only case which has so far arisen under this procedure is that of a textbook which accused the rivers of Spain of running dry in the summer. Obviously devices of this sort do not deal with the real problem.

Another suggestion has been that the aims and objects of the League, or of international peace generally, should be promulgated in the schools through works composed specially for that purpose.

A certain number of books of this kind have been written by private individuals and are now on the market. Others are awaiting a friendly publisher. Towards them the League can only extend the same benevolent sympathy as it exhibits towards the organised historians. The League can neither compose textbooks nor subsidize or otherwise encourage the textbooks of others. The pitfalls which it would encounter if it did so are too obvious to enumerate.

But this attitude on the part of the

League is not merely due to prudence. It is sound in principle. Those who desire to see the League directly promoting a particular movement of opinion in the schools, are misconceiving the nature and purpose of education. In resisting the temptation to promote propaganda in the schools the League is doing a far greater service to education than any which it could render to the cause of peace if it reversed its policy.

The object of public education is to train the mind and character of the growing citizen so that he or she may be enabled to think and act with independence and responsibility. One of the disciplines employed to this end is the study of history. To pervert history to a lesser purpose is to debase both the teacher and the subject. No doubt it will be urged that this ideal is too austere—that countless teachers to-day are in fact, willingly or unwillingly, engaged in propaganda, and that the friends of peace are therefore compelled to set a counter-propaganda in motion.

That some propaganda exists in the schools of most countries, and a great deal of propaganda in the schools of some, may be readily admitted. But the best remedy against propaganda is not more propaganda. It is disinterested thinking. Propagandist schools are not good schools. They do not turn out intelligent students—still less, competent historians. Left to themselves, they will sooner or later retrace their steps. Every true educator knows that the healthy mind reacts against excess, and that propaganda therefore breeds its own antidote.

More difficult, no doubt, is the situation when the unfair presentation is not deliberate, but simply the result of a narrow and prejudiced outlook. But here, too, the best remedy is not to exaggerate in the opposite direction, but to work for a steady enlargement of the circle of vision.

How then is the problem of removing ill will between the nations to be met? The answer is—by the historians themselves.

A prejudiced history book is a disgrace to the historian's craft. It is not in the power of historians, whether individual or collective, to prevent such books being written or

published. But it is within their power to ensure that they are faithfully dealt with by the specialist organs. And they can do more than that—they can ensure that an adequate supply of first-rate books of the type needed by schools and colleges is available. In other words, while they cannot root out the bad, they can ignore it, and suppress it by the mere force of competition.

Such a procedure is likely to be more effective than the blacklisting, and consequent advertisement, of offending textbooks, which has been preached or practised in some quarters, though this too may be useful in particular circumstances.

But if one remedy lies in independent action by historians, independence on the part of teachers of history is another line of advance. No two teachers teach alike or have exactly the same interests. Every teacher who is a real teacher ought therefore to have a voice in the choice of the textbook to be used in his class. Here one comes up against many obstacles, customary, bureaucratic and administrative, and it is difficult to lay down a counsel of perfection. But, whatever the tyranny of ministers, inspectors, headmasters, examination syllabuses and even parents, the principle that the history teacher should remain master in his own class remains valid. The League of Nations, at least, will never challenge his authority by cramming a textbook down his throat.

The way to international understanding is through better education. Better education means better teachers, and better conditions for the exercise of the teachers' art. Once secure these, and the rest will follow.

The League can no doubt help, and help substantially, to improve general educational conditions, both indirectly, by setting free for education money once directed to armaments, and directly by promoting contact and co-operation between educators. This is part of the work of international co-operation for which it has been founded. But its direct service to History must remain that of endeavouring to provide a clean page on which Clio and her adepts can use their pens.

Four Years' Course in History for Welsh Secondary Schools

By J. E. Lloyd, M.A., D.Litt.

(Professor of History, University College of North Wales, Bangor)

IN explaining the new scheme of history work which I have of late been advocating for secondary schools in Wales, I wish to make it plain that it owes its origin to special Welsh conditions and, in particular, to my concern for the study of the history of Wales. Those who know me are well aware that this has been the field in which for many years I have worked, and that it has been my aim, not only in some measure to advance the subject by research, but also, as far as in me lay, to spread the knowledge of it among my countrymen. I have always given active support to the contention, often voiced in patriotic Welsh circles, that it is absurd that Welsh children should be taught the history of England and learn all about Magna Carta and the Wars of the Roses, while they are left in ignorance of the history of their own country and know nothing of the deeds of Llywelyn the Great and Owain Glyn Dwr. The patriotic argument is easily reinforced by an educational one; history teaching gains immensely in vigour and life if it can be linked to the pupil's daily environment, if its heroes play their part on a familiar stage and speak with a familiar accent.

In the early days of the Welsh educational movement, it was not difficult, within certain limits, to find room for the recognition of this principle. It is true that the new secondary schools established under the Intermediate Education Act of 1889 inherited the curriculum which was usual in English schools of the same order, and, like them, at first provided a course of purely English history from Julius Cæsar to the battle of Waterloo. But enlightened advocates of the teaching of Welsh history were quite alive to its dependence upon the history of England as a background—Magna Carta, for example, contains articles which specially concern Wales, and Welshmen took a leading part in the Wars of the Roses. What was needed was not a story divorced from that of the rest of Britain, but one in which Wales was the foreground

instead of a backwater hardly worthy of mention. This requirement was very fairly met by the inclusion in the English history syllabus of a substantial amount of Welsh history; in this way both the University of Wales in its Matriculation examination and the Central Welsh Board which examines the intermediate schools, gave the zealous Welsh teacher his opportunity, and in many schools the new subject was effectively taught.

But of late, and notably since the war, a fresh difficulty has become manifest. It has been realised that an epoch in world history came to a close in 1918, as surely as in 1815, an epoch which, because it is closed, is as fit an object of historical study as any earlier stretch of human activity. Alike in the university and in the schools, history has begun to busy itself with the nineteenth century, and to unwind the narrative which leads to the tragic finale of the World War. Further, the peace has liberated a moral force of powerful appeal—the sentiment of human brotherhood, the desire of amity and good neighbourhood among the world's peoples, the ideal embodied in the imposing fabric of the League of Nations. Inevitably, a demand has arisen that the teaching of history shall have a close relation to the working out of this ideal; it must no longer be merely sectional and nationalist, but must

Survey mankind from China to Peru, and glorify the achievements, not of one people and state, but of the whole human family. Thus recent history and world history have between them combined seriously to undermine the old accepted curriculum, until the point was rapidly being reached when live history teaching in Welsh schools had no use for the middle ages and, in consequence, very little use for the distinctive history of Wales.

This was the situation by which I was induced in 1926 to attempt the task of working out a curriculum which should do justice to all legitimate ideals, one which should,

as far as possible, satisfy alike the Welsh nationalist and the internationalist, while at the same time faithful to the requirements of good history teaching. The important matter was to plan the ground to be covered by a secondary school pupil during the four years leading up to the matriculation or school certificate stage. Elementary school work, which is governed by entirely different considerations, I left out of account, and I made no attempt to plot out a course for pupils who had matriculated and were proceeding to the higher certificate examination. It will be seen that the scheme at which I arrived involves two basic assumptions, for which I believed I had sufficient warrant in the general agreement of expert opinion. The first of these is that the school teaching of history should, in the main, be concerned with great movements and great ideas, treating long periods in broad outline, and not concentrating on the intensive study of a limited field. This was the issue discussed by the late Dr. Tout, as long ago as 1907, in the paper on "Outlines versus Periods" which he read to the first meeting of the Historical Association. Few students of history would now doubt that he did well to come down heavily on the side of 'outlines'; only those misled by classical or mathematical analogies are prepared to contend that a short period of history 'thoroughly' learnt is better than a great age of human endeavour apprehended in its leading features. The second assumption which underlies my scheme is that in a systematic course, covering the best years of average school life, the order should be chronological, bringing the pupil along step by step from the earliest to modern times. To convey a sense of human progress, to show that the manners, the ideas and the institutions of each epoch are evolved from what has gone before, is one important aim of good history teaching, and utter confusion of mind must be the result if this year the Puritan movement or the French Revolution is studied, while next year the course harks back to Wyclif and Wat Tyler and the Hundred Years' War.

Starting thus with the conception of a four years' course covering broadly, in due sequence of time, the whole of recorded human endeavour, I treat the history of England as the chronological backbone, the time-chart to which other events are related.

I need not again stress the point that for Welsh history this is essential; any attempt, such as might be made by a Welsh enthusiast, to treat the history of Wales in entire independence of that of England, would leave it suspended in mid-air, its course unexplained, its development a mystery. It is, of course, not so essential to study European history in association with that of our island; British affairs can be relegated to the background, at any rate until the rise of British maritime power, and the conflict between the Crown and the barons of England may be set aside as of little moment compared to the great struggle of pope and emperor. But, if it is important to engage the interests of the children as dwellers in Wales, it must not be forgotten, also, that they will grow up to be citizens of the British state; they must play their part in this community as well as in the world-wide fellowship of the nations, and the window in the mind which history opens upon the past must command this corner of the world drama in an especial degree if they are to understand the road by which they have travelled and the forces which have made them what they are.

The essence of the scheme, then, is that in each stage of the course, general, British and Welsh history shall be studied concurrently and viewed as different aspects of one world process. For instance, in the second stage of the first year, the Roman Empire is discussed in outline, while special attention is given to the Roman province of Britain and within that province to the Roman occupation of Wales. The field in the first stage of this year as far as Britain is concerned is chiefly prehistoric; not only does the pupil in this way obtain a glimpse of the rise of our civilisation from its humble beginnings, but in the general part of the course he is led to see that at this time there was a more advanced civilisation around the Mediterranean, and in a very simple way he can correlate with his history knowledge the teaching given him in Scripture, Greek and Latin. One feature to which attention may be drawn is the position assigned to Greek and Roman culture. Chronologically, the subject belongs to the first year and almost entirely to its first stage. But, while the second form is an admirable theatre for the exposition of the methods of prehistoric man, it does not,

I venture to maintain, supply a congenial atmosphere for the appreciation of the merits of Greek art and philosophy, and I postpone this whole subject, therefore, until the third year of the course, when the period of the Renaissance is reached and some colour is afforded for departing from the proper sequence in time and falling back upon pre-Christian times.

The scheme was first submitted to the Advisory Education Committee of the Welsh League of Nations Union, a body which is specially concerned to see that the rising generation is made familiar with the League and its ideals, and that in all grades of education there is a favourable atmosphere for League ideas. The Committee gave its cordial support to the scheme, and circulated it as an official publication. It has been expounded to various branches of the Historical Association in Wales, to a conference of the heads of Welsh secondary schools, and to the authorities of the Central Welsh Board. While points have been raised which present practical difficulty, I think I may claim that approval of the scheme as a whole has been universal, and I understand that it is being very generally adopted. The examination requirements of the University and of the Central Welsh Board have been modified in order to make room for it; on this side, at any rate, there are no obstacles to its adoption. Perhaps the most serious objection I have had to

meet is the difficulty of including so much matter in the weekly periods usually allotted to the subject. Where history gets only two such periods in the time-table for the week, I admit that the complaint has some force, and can but venture to hope that the broad scope of the syllabus and its educational value may lead to a more liberal allowance of time. With three periods, there should be no difficulty, for it is essential to the scheme that not only general and Welsh, but also English history should be treated broadly. Much that in the past has been considered necessary to a school course in general English history must go—details of acts of parliament, complicated genealogical tables, lists of second-rate battles. These should be reserved for those pupils who take history to a higher stage and who can afford to concentrate upon limited periods. I fear that my proposals do not make the work of the history master (or mistress) easier, and this is another objection they may have to meet, that they can be satisfactorily carried out only by the trained, specialist teacher. On that score I am afraid that I have not an open mind; I regard it as essential that those who teach history in a secondary school should have made a thorough study of the subject and should, ordinarily, be honours graduates in the history school of some university.

Mr. H. G. Wells on History Teaching

(from an interview granted to the Editor)

To meet Mr. H. G. Wells in person is an event, for he makes one feel on terms of equality with the great. His friendliness and merry twinkle at once dispel the atmosphere of a formal interview and give one a quickening appetite for his thoughts and ideas. Our discussions focussed on education as a means towards the attainment of world peace, and in particular on the subject of history teaching.

Mr. Wells is still amused at the reactions of the public to his *Outline of History*. There are still frenzied 'fors' and 'againsts'. Per-

sonally, I agree with Mr. Somervell when he says that when the worst that can be said against the *Outline* has been said, it remains a magnificent design admirably realised. "Mr. Wells' conception was a *History of the Human Race* written by a citizen of the world for his fellow-citizens of all nations. It scorned a narrow nationalism. It presented human history as it might be presented by an intelligent visitor from Mars who had conceived an impassioned interest in the welfare of our species. It gave and aimed at giving to England and to France,

to Rome and to China, to Christ and to Buddha, to Julius Cæsar and to Kublai Khan, just that amount of attention which, from the 'Martian' standpoint, they deserved, neither more nor less." This was, of course, its object. Mr. Wells felt there had been a need of some such account of man's story in the universe. He regarded it as a necessary part of any properly conceived education. "For," he continued, "why do we teach history to our children? To take them out of themselves, to place them in a conscious relationship to the world in which they live, to make them realise themselves as actors and authors in a great drama which began before they were born and which opens out to issues far transcending any personal ends in their interest and importance. . . Unfortunately the teaching of history in schools has followed the movement of the student of history and not the needs of the common citizen towards ampler views, because there has never yet been a proper recognition of the difference in aim between study for knowledge, the historical study of the elect, on the one hand, and teaching, the general education of the citizen for the good, not only of the citizen but of the community, on the other."

To Mr. Wells two things are fundamental to world peace: the replacement of the narrow nationalism which passes in many schools as history teaching, by the teaching of world history, and the abolition of tariff barriers. The child, he thinks, should learn from its earliest days to look upon the world as a unit, economically, politically and spiritually. He should be taught cosmopolitan universal history beginning with early man, following the rise and fall of civilisations which have led us to our own mechanical age. (But Mr. Wells does not agree with the commonly accepted theory that the Romantic Age should be studied during the period of adolescence.) He advocated an alternative history syllabus such as is suggested by Professor Lloyd, and is convinced that in a very short time we could have the broad facts of human history taught to-day in practically the same terms throughout all Europe. "On minds prepared in this fashion it would be possible to build the new conceptions of an organised world peace." Unfortunately, teachers, boards of education, public opinion, examinations, syllabuses and textbooks bar the way. The vast majority

of teachers are too overburdened to tackle any mental reconstruction. If Mr. Wells could have his way, every teacher would enjoy ten years of real living after his college training and before taking up his profession. There would then be time and leisure for some basic thinking! Those to whom children are entrusted should be imbued with vitality, with life itself, and with creative living. Scholarship is mere formalism. It weights the Public Schools with tradition, and turns out men and women whose mental outfit is inadequate for the demands of modern life. In short, idealology lies behind our mechanical progress. Too many people are still impressed by an array of flowers in the Head's garden and by the boys in white flannels. What use is such a charming picture when the mental conditions are archaic?

The modern community has yet to develop a type of teacher with the freedom and leisure to make a thorough and continuous study of contemporary historical and other scientific knowledge in order to use these accumulations to the best effect in general education. This is work for teachers and not for historians. The insufficient number of teachers maintained are kept closely to the grindstone of actual lesson-giving. Perhaps a time will come when, over and above the professors and teachers actively in contact with pupils and classes, there will be a considerable organisation of educationists whose work will be this intermediate selection and preparation of knowledge. Such master teachers may be appearing in the United States of America and in other countries, but in Britain there seem to be few, and no signs of any development of this broader, more philosophical grade of teacher.

Of course, responsibility for the present state of affairs does not lie primarily with the teachers. Parents must remember that they compose probably the larger part of the electorate. Members of Parliament and local Education Committees are answerable to them finally, and not to the teaching profession, for the kind of education provided in our schools. Why not a great nationwide campaign now, while we have a Minister who cares tremendously about peace, so that our children may be given a true picture of the world's development and a right appreciation of its nation's place in relation to every other people?



Jane Tomhagen

Francis Parker School, Chicago

Then along that riverbank a thousand miles,
Tattooed cannibals danced in files



Gloria Parker

Francis Parker School, Chicago

We were not made eternally to weep—(Cullen)



Norman Redmond and James Lynch

Francis Parker School, Chicago

Then I heard the boom of the blood-lust song
And a thigh-bone beating on a tin-pan gong



Francis Parker School, Chicago

CLASS ILLUSTRATING THE CONGO

Nor, as Mr. Wells emphasized, is this British country the only culprit. All over Europe and across the Atlantic, too, children are being taught to regard us from the same jaundiced point of view as our children look at them. Having put ourselves in the right path, the next task will be to prove to others the worth of our cosmopolitanism. But that can never be done until our own house is set in order.

We agree whole-heartedly with Mr. Wells' basic views on this vital subject of history teaching in the schools. Certainly, "a sense of history as the common adventure of all mankind is as necessary for peace within as it is for peace between the nations". As he said on the wireless several months ago: "Peace has its price. The price of world peace is the abandonment of the ideas of sovereign independence and national compe-

tition. We have to adjust our minds and feelings to that. We have to see to it that our children do not grow up fierce and intolerant patriots. We have to see they grasp and are attuned to the new ideas and are no longer enslaved to the old. We have to think less and less as citizens of our country and more and more as citizens of the world. We have to cease to be national and become cosmopolitan. We have to consider the rulers and governments we have, as mere trustees for this great amalgamation before mankind. We have to put world peace now before patriotism, and train ourselves to a new and wider loyalty. Make no mistake about the meaning of such an adjustment. It means a huge mental effort for all of us. It means a great and painful abandonment of many of our dearest habits of mind. Are we making any such effort?"

D. V. H.

Knowledge or Training

By F. C. Happold, D.S.O., M.A.

(*Headmaster of Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury*)

MOST will agree that the curriculum in the modern secondary school is overloaded; with the result that at the end of his school career a boy has a smattering of many things but has received no thorough grounding in any. He knows little and that little is soon forgotten. He has learnt neither to think clearly, nor to argue logically, nor to form a considered and unbiased judgment. Nor has he received that training which would enable him to build on the foundations laid in his school years by continuing his studies in later life. As likely as not, the way he has been taught, especially in the last year when the passing of the school certificate is the main object of his work, has given him a distaste for knowledge which prevents him from benefiting to the fullest extent from his studies at school.

Such statements are perhaps exaggerated; they are certainly not universally true; but they contain sufficient truth to make it desirable to consider whether everything is as well as it might be, whether the broadening of the curriculum has brought about such improvements in education as we are often led to believe.

History is one of the newer subjects of the curriculum. Is it possible to justify its inclusion? One may speak of the inspiration which a knowledge of history gives, of the width of outlook and clarity of judgment which is the possession of those who live in the light of the ages, whose horizons are not limited by the present but who are able to view the present in relation to the past. Does, however, the child gain that inspiration, does he ever attain that width of outlook? Are not these things rather the reward of long study and thought?

History is essentially a study for the adult mind. Concerned as it is with human experience it can only be understood as it becomes related to human experience, experience which the child does not as yet possess. It deals with ideas which are beyond the comprehension of children, or at any rate can only be dimly comprehended by them. Its simplest terms are only partially understandable to them.

Moreover much of the history a boy learns is naturally and inevitably forgotten, partly for the reasons put down above, partly because the facts of history are so numerous

that they cannot be given that continual use which would impress them on the memory. In this respect the study of history differs from that of a language, in which grammatical constructions, words, phrases, are used again and again, and so are retained in the mind and are capable of being recalled at need. Later in life the historical memory develops, since the trained adult mind is able to associate and co-ordinate the facts of history, now more clearly comprehensible, and combine them into a body of historical knowledge in which each new fact is easily related to those already known. Such considerations suggest that it may be desirable to defer the study of history to the post-certificate years.

Since only a few pass on to post-certificate work, to adopt such a policy would be to deprive the majority of the boys and girls who pass through secondary schools of any opportunity of studying history. One would be loath to do this. It is, therefore, desirable to enquire whether the inclusion of history in the curriculum can be defended on other grounds. If it can be shown that the study of history can give to the pupil of secondary school age a sort of training which could not be given so well in any other way, then it may be argued that, quite apart from any knowledge of history which may be gained in the process of that study, its place in the curriculum is justified.

Properly carried out, the study of history can, I believe, give such training; but only in so far as it is conceived not as an attempt to fill the mind with historical facts, but as showing how historical facts may be collected, arranged, handled and surveyed. It will thus become a valuable form of mental training, useful in itself and preparing the way for the more advanced study of history at a time when it can be studied effectively. Though such is not the primary aim, it will result in the accumulation of a body of historical knowledge, which, though imperfectly comprehended, will be not a mere smattering but a sound foundation for further work.

Let us consider how such a scheme of training may be worked out in detail in a five years' history course. In the first year world history will be the subject of study. The boy of roughly eleven years old will survey in outline the history of mankind, starting in the dim distant past with the

making of the world and the evolution of man and moving forward in broad sweeps to his own day. In the course of this study not only will his imagination be aroused but also he will receive his first lessons in time sense and in the collection and arrangement of material for the charts which will be the record of his work.

In the second and third years English history, with an increasingly international bias as modern times are reached, may be used as the basis of study. The boy will continue his practice in the collection and arrangement of material in a more advanced form. In the first year his record was in the form of picture charts, now he will be called upon to express his ideas in words. A notebook with skeleton headings will be given him to guide him in his work of collection and arrangement. At first he will record simple historical facts; as time goes on he will be called upon to deal with facts of a more complicated character and with the expression of abstract ideas. At first he will be concerned with what happened, later he will be asked to show why it happened, he will be introduced to the idea of causation. The texts he uses will increase in difficulty, so that his powers of understanding and judgment are developed. He will be taught to express himself clearly and logically, his desire for imaginative expression will be satisfied, and his powers increased through the writing of ballads, songs, plays, eye-witness accounts and diaries.

During this stage the boy may be given opportunities of carrying out a sustained piece of work to a great extent unaided. Groups of boys may be turned loose in a library for a whole term to work up a given subject. It would be inappropriate to ask them at too early a stage to express the results of their work in the essay form, but it will be found that they are capable of effectively building up development charts on concrete subjects such as ships, transport, books, costume, etc. In the process they will learn how to use books and to collect material from them for a definite purpose. Such a piece of work may be attempted with success during the last term of the second year. At the end of the third year similar work may be tried on less concrete themes.

In the fourth year the intensive study of a short period, as for instance the Revolu-

tionary and Napoleonic era, may be undertaken. Such a plan will allow of boys being introduced to more serious historical works, of learning to appreciate more complex ideas, of comparing different points of view and gaining greater skill in those processes of collection, arrangement and expression in which they have received a graded training in their earlier years of school life.

If the training described above has been carried out effectively, the fifth, the school certificate, year becomes not a hectic scramble to accumulate the necessary number of facts to satisfy a remote and arbitrary examiner, but the crowning of a solid structure, the conscious use of acquired skills for

a definite end. Moreover, when the examination is passed, whether the historical knowledge gained be lost or not, the effects of the training which has been undergone will remain, valuable alike whether the boy leaves school and goes out into the world or proceeds to more advanced studies. For are not those things which we have been teaching him the things he needs to help him to attain success in business, in the professions or in the more complex work of an advanced course, to read with understanding, to collect, arrange and estimate facts and ideas, to work unaided, to think and express himself clearly, accurately, and logically?

Blazing New Trails in Historical Instruction

By Daniel C. Knowlton

(Author of *Making History Graphic*; *History and the Other Social Studies in the Junior High School*; *Motion Pictures in History Teaching*)

SCARCELY five years have passed since the writer brought together in a modest volume a number of specimens of the work done by some of his pupils in the Lincoln School of Teachers College, in *Making History Graphic*. The book was merely a convenient medium for sharing with other members of the historical guild some 'by-products'—as they seemed to him then—of certain efforts to reorganize the materials of history with a view to injecting into them a larger element of life and reality.

These results may no longer be regarded as 'by-products'; nor can they be said to be peculiar to the Lincoln School—if they ever were. The writer has himself learned one of the lessons which he has striven these many years to impress upon his pupils, to wit, that time is the most potent of agencies for placing things in their proper perspective; for, in the interval since the publication of the little volume, the pupils whose work appears there have not only moved on to more penetrating analyses of historical data, but have risen to new heights in their organization of historical materials and in their power to give expression to their contacts with the past.

One illustration perhaps will suffice. A boy of about 17, two samples of whose work of four years before is to be found in the volume, submitted the following poem as his 'picture' of the conditions responsible for the French Revolution:

The Condition of France when Louis XVI Came to the Throne

I

Grey twilight fell as if in shame
To flaunt its regal gold and flame
Across the wide unhappy land
Where lay, in gloomy reprimand
For all the sun's serenity,
The squalid camps of Poverty.
And knowing it can never vie
With half the splendours of Versailles,
The shrouded sun shrank down from sight
With greater haste, since on this night
Nobility would congregate
To hold a coronation fête
Of unsurpassed extravagance
For Louis Sixteenth, King of France.
Anticipation charged the air—
These evidences everywhere:
Within the gardens every hedge
Cut to a geometric edge;
The lanterns strung from tree to tree,
As yet unlit, but soon to be;
The fountains that await the cue

To loose their perfumed flood of dew;
The rockets slanting in their trough
Athirst for flame to set them off,
So they may tell the moon and sun
That France has crowned a simpleton.

Aromas from the pantries rise
Like some vanilla paradise;
For chefs from over seven seas
Have met to pool their recipes—
Make each soufflée, éclair and tart
A gem of culinary art.

Throughout the land the guests prepare
To glitter at the grand affair.
In wild excitement powdered prigs
Are feverishly curling wigs.
The ladies, rigid in their stays,
Entreat the King's admiring gaze.
The bishops swagger full arrayed
Bedecked in robes of gold brocade.
While hungry monks in distant cells
Are kneeling for the vesper bells.

And now the clattering approach
Of coach

after coach

after coach.

II

And as the deeper shadows steal,
The peasant takes his meagre meal.
Not only is his fare so scanty,
His domicile a draughty shanty,
But he has scarce enough to live,
Since any surplus he must give
Unto those grim persistent spectres
Who haunt his door, the tax collectors.
They hound him for the *tithe*, the *taille*,
The grim *gabelle* that makes him buy
Sufficient salt for seven years;
As if starvation's bitter tears
Were not providing ample brine!
The king would even tax his wine
And still relentlessly demand
Each man to cultivate the land
And sacrifice his little crop
To give some lazy, fawning fop
That swells the royal retinue
A brighter buckle for his shoe.

Regardless of his worth or merit,
The Bourgeois who could not inherit
A title or a vast estate,
In vain must rail his luckless fate.
He feels himself for ever trapped,
Inextricably handicapped;
And helplessly must idle by,
While painted puppets at Versailles
Are toying with a thunderbolt
To wake the Lion of Revolt!

III

The lanterns shed a waning glow,
The dying candles sputter low,
The final minuet has played,
The parting curtsies have been made,
The banquet board is pilfered bare,
The last pistachio éclair

Is surreptitiously consumed.
The night has eagerly resumed
Her usual supremacy
And flaunts her stars triumphantly.
The sleepy coaches roll away,
Nocturnal silences hold sway.
And though the guests have long since gone,
Faint perfume lingers on the lawn.

The king retiring to his bed
Sees in the east a gaining red;
And thinks he drank excess of wine,
Or else why would the sun so shine,
And leer up like a gory head?

Difficulties of reproduction make it impossible adequately to present his efforts to express himself through drawing. These compare most favourably, however, with the remarkably penetrating insight revealed by the imagery of his poetry.

Granting that a lad of this kind has more than a modicum of talent, how many teachers are making a piece of work like this possible? About all that the teacher can really do in his capacity of instructor is to provide the pupil with every possible opportunity for capitalizing that which lies within him and for bringing it into harmony with the world about him.

A few pages from the experiences of the writer in developing this type of response, may perhaps prove helpful to other teachers. The atmosphere of the Lincoln School was most stimulating for pioneering effort. The writer came to the task with a background of several years' experience in the public schools and feeling that the greatest service which such a school could render was to develop types of work and forms of organization which could be readily taken over and utilized by any school, public or private.

From the outset it was accepted as axiomatic that the organization of the materials of instruction was inseparably bound up with teaching techniques. From the very beginning a liberal use was made of picture material, particularly in the form of stereographs, wall charts, and loose-leaf pictorial material prepared by the writer some years before.

Accompanying this use of visual material was a persistent effort to reduce the subject matter to a rather definite set of problems or exercises with a view to defining more precisely the nature and scope of the work to be performed by the pupil. This was also accompanied by a constant appraisal of the teaching problem which seemed to be

peculiar to or characteristic of an unfolding knowledge of the field of history. The teacher was determined to be guided on the one hand by the nature and demands of the subject matter, and on the other, by the response to those demands of the pupils before him, always making due allowances for the age of the group and the cumulative effect of previous instruction.

In the school years of twelve to fourteen it was very apparent that the appeal of the visual was a potent one. Fed as the group were on a past which was made visible for them wherever this was possible, their verbal expressions of their contacts with it tended toward an ever-increasing amount of imagery. Jennie Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe* (Silver, Burdette & Co., New York City) was a powerful ally in this connection, and it was not long before many twelve-year-olds were submitting drawings and diagrams.

The writer recalls the impetus which this tendency received from a clever representation of Napoleon as an octopus with tentacles reaching out to seize upon whatever denizens of the sea came within his grasp.

The instructor had encouraged from the very beginning a large amount of map work, placing a premium upon a type of original work rather than the slavish copying of existing materials. Maps were always conceived as 'pictures' of man in his environment, and pupils were encouraged to revive the pictorial features which make of early cartography so fascinating a study. The blackboard was also used freely by the instructor for analyzing complicated situations or for showing relationships.

Those pupils who came on from the elementary grades at about the age of eleven often found it difficult to express themselves adequately in graphic form because of their rather poor control of their motor faculties. They were duly impressed by the work of the classes ahead of them as it appeared from time to time on the classroom bulletin boards. Recognizing their own limitations they nevertheless persisted in this form of expression and were given every encouragement to do so. It was often pointed out to them that it was not so much the perfection of their drawing or successful colour combinations that counted, but the purpose served in revealing what they really saw or felt. On one occasion two of the crudest drawings in a group of twenty-five children were voted by the class as the best

presentations of the causes of the French Revolution.

The work of the upper grades (of pupils from 15 to 17 or thereabouts) clearly demonstrated, when once this work was launched below, that it could be utilized most effectively at this stage of instruction, where it is usually assumed that the pupils are too sophisticated or too 'academically-minded' to express themselves in this fashion. Perhaps the wide vogue of the cartoon may help to explain this. On the other hand it has been the observation of the writer that these students are less sophisticated and more child-like than teachers have assumed.

It was with much fear and trembling that a class of 16- and 17-year-olds were asked to read a rather badly done dramatization of the formation of the Constitution, in which each member of the class had been assigned a part which he was either to memorize or to read, and be prepared to fit it into a class presentation. The arrangements as to presiding officer and principal characters were left largely in their hands. One of their first moves was to select the most sophisticated boy in the class as chairman of the Convention (George Washington). When the time came for its presentation as a regular class exercise in the history period it was carried off with great dignity and with apparent profit to those who participated. No further proof seemed to be needed that a group of this kind are still responsive to the visual appeal. It should be noted, however, that this group had behind them a rich visual background. All along the line they had been encouraged to hold fast to visual expression. The appeal was always in terms of "putting something of yourself in it". "Give it the form which most appeals to you, always bearing in mind its power to convey what you see to your fellows."

Before the writer left the Lincoln School, hundreds of pieces of work of this character were being submitted by the students, with a decided improvement in their quality. More promising has been the ease with which similar work has been secured from other and less favoured schools with which he has been connected, and under the direction of other teachers who, having caught the vision of the possibilities of this form of expression, have had the courage thoroughly to probe them.

Aims and Ways of History Teaching

By Katharine Taylor

(Director of the Shady Hill School, Cambridge, Mass., U.S.A.)

If one looks critically at adult life to-day, in this rapidly changing world, one sees certain glaring failures in human behaviour. It is our aim to try so to train children that they may meet with better intelligence the changing conditions of their generation. We want the next generation to have more unity of purpose; a more realistic way of meeting life; a more intelligent idealism; more range and resourcefulness in tackling situations; more disinterestedness of purpose; more realization that they are an integral part of a whole far greater even than their own small community.

We use a few main guide lines in planning a curriculum. We try to unify it as far as possible, to avoid the jerks and losses of attention which frequent shifts of subject matter cause, and to secure the depth and momentum of thinking that come from a unified piece of work. We realize the essential integrity of the separate subjects, but we try to correlate them as far as possible. We try always to keep in mind the interrelation of thought and event, of the impersonal phenomena of the universe and human life. But the mind must be kept flexible and imaginative in dealing with correlation. Carefully handled, it puts life-blood into a curriculum, and makes it organic.

It therefore seems sensible to allow a great deal of leeway to each individual teacher, class and child. Yet continuity must not be relinquished entirely. The result would be a chaos disconcerting to any child. We organize—with the freedom to change it whenever we see fit—a 'core' of curriculum.

How does this apply to the study of history? Our history work with young children tends to expand horizontally into all the rich and various expressions of life of a period. Yet we keep constantly in mind the questions of cause and effect. Certain significant periods in the history of Europe are deeply studied, in the hope that children may realize that no time or people is understood until it is known in many aspects of life and from many points of view. Do the

old Norse Vikings seem rough, brutal plunderers? Yes, but look at their beautiful carved designs; read the translation of the eddas; remember the beauty of the Baldur myth. There was order and dignity, love of beauty, and aspiration in those early Norsemen.

History is not political events alone. No child who studies history at all is too young to realize this. How did the lie of the land, the fertility of the soil, the length of the crop season, the waterways, affect their life? A certain type of national industry develops. What does it mean in the nation's life? Some of the leaders go off on a Crusade. If they come back, what comes back with them? Beautiful unknown fabrics; strange, half-oriental designs creeping now into the carvings in French cathedrals, a memory of revelling in plunder; a reinforced sense of the majesty of Christian faith; a hunger for trade with the East, and soon, an established trade route. What is the traffic of that trade? What has this period of interchange done for each people in harm and in good? What deposit has it left in the life of either?

This kind of study inevitably leads to a demand for source material, for children's use. Fire and vigour and immediacy are inherent in many sources and attained in few textbooks. Varied source material, of a type understandable by children, arranged in such form as children can use themselves, is increasingly demanded by teachers of history. At least one organization in the United States is now at work toward filling this need (see account of The History Reference Council, page 95), and there are undoubtedly many others here and in other countries. Some time, perhaps, the results of these sporadic efforts will be pooled in some way that will enrich and deepen the study of history for a great many children.

Our twelve-year-olds recently spent a few weeks studying the feudal life of the Middle Ages. The work was centred around the life of William the Norman as described by the chroniclers Wace and William of Malmes-

bury. The young duke's difficulties in bringing his Norman barons into line led the class into discussion of feudal obligations and what had brought them into being. The accounts of his laying siege to certain recalcitrant castles began a study of stone castles and how they were constructed to meet the needs of the life of that day. Information on the building and history of the Castle of Coucy, 1079-1586, with a thirteenth century plan prepared by the History Reference Council, was of use in this work on castles. Also as part of this castle study the children attempted some designing of tapestries and they learned a thirteenth century song sung by women at their sewing.

The class followed Wace's account of the Norman Conquest of England with coloured pictures of the embroidered Bayeux Tapestry. From these sources further information was obtained on armour, boats, food and drink. The children carried over the idea of recording current events in pictures when they chose to commemorate the founding of the school library by painting a frieze telling, section by section, the story of the library's beginning.

After reading Wace's account of the Conquest from the Norman point of view the class read either an English version of the Conquest or the history of an English town during the Norman settlement. From this angle William's righteous move to avenge Harold's broken oath appeared an unwarrantable act of aggression. The divergent views of conqueror and conquered were here sharply contrasted until it was plain that any understanding of the Conquest must take into consideration both attitudes. Once started the class went into further discussion of the causes that rouse men to invasion in any age and the various justifications they give themselves and their fellows for their actions. Finally the advantages and setbacks accruing to England from this Conquest were studied.

William's attempt to inform himself in Domesday Book about the English manors led to the study of manor life. Through studying manor and court rolls and reproductions of the mediæval calendars carved in wood and stone in the churches the children became familiar with the work being

done on the land in the different seasons, with the varieties of services and taxes owed by villains to their lords, and the ways in which such obligations were enforced. Further material taken from the records of the English manor of Elton has recently been made available for children's use by the History Reference Council.

The new era of Norman building called forth a study of Saxon and Norman architecture. Large photographs of William and Mathilda's abbey churches at Caen were used. Batsford has now published in London an excellent aid to such study, a fine set of wall charts showing the development of English architecture.

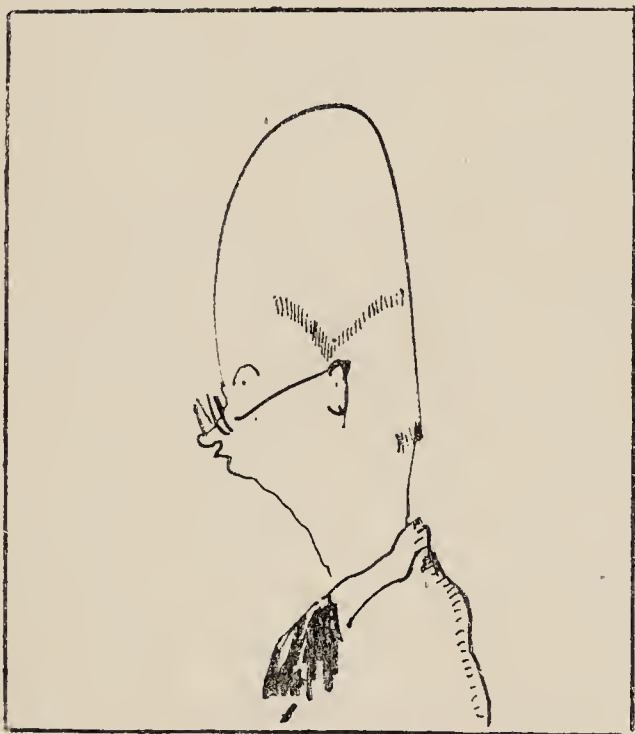
Such a unit of work is often summed up by gathering together a number of individual compositions, maps, illustrations, etc., into a manuscript book for the school library, or by making a play—The Shady Hill Play Book, published by MacMillan, contains several plays created out of their mediæval history study by the children (see review on page 119).

Is it too much to hope that history study such as this may develop attitudes in children which will be of use to them in dealing with their own immediate experience and their later experiences in adult life? We try to get them to realize that the values of a deed, a leader, an event, are not all black or all white, but a tangle of motives and forces. We try to train them to untangle, in historical situations, some of these motives and forces, to look at each separately and to try to see what produced it; and most of all, to realize that there are many subtle influences that cannot be untangled and identified. We try to train them not to adopt opinions ready-made; not to pass judgment on insufficient evidence; not to condemn flatly or praise blindly on the basis of half-knowledge or less than half; yet to have the courage to form an opinion, after careful study, and to hold to it with independence. We try to train them in disinterested, exploratory thinking. Of course it is only an infinitesimal beginning, a beginning that many history teachers the world over are making all the time. But keep on adding together the atoms, and, after a long time, what may come of it?

The Noble Art of Forgetting

By Hendrik Willem Van Loon

It began when I was six. I had my first History Lesson. I was told that the Batavians had entered the low marshes which formed my native land in the year 100 B.C. and that the Romans had followed their example in 50 B.C. I had no idea who those Batavians had been, what they had looked like, smelled like, what they had eaten or even what they had done, but I knew that they got to the mouth of the Rhine in 100 B.C. and that the Romans (an equally unknown quantity) had come to Holland in 50 B.C. That knowledge seemed to be of supreme importance. 100 B.C. and 50 B.C. and never mind the rest.



Soon these dates were followed by others. I learned a list of names of people who meant nothing in my young life and who meant nothing in the young lives of my small neighbours, but who were known as "the Counts of Holland". I can still reel off their names: Dirk the first, Dirk the second, Dirk—no, the third one was Arnoud and not a Dirk, and if you made him Dirk instead of Arnoud, Heaven above help you, for it meant writing out the full list twenty-five times. Then came the Counts of the Bavarian House who had ruled Holland. It took me forty years to find out why Bavarians should ever have ruled Holland or what Burgundians were. In my world there were no longer any Burgundians. In

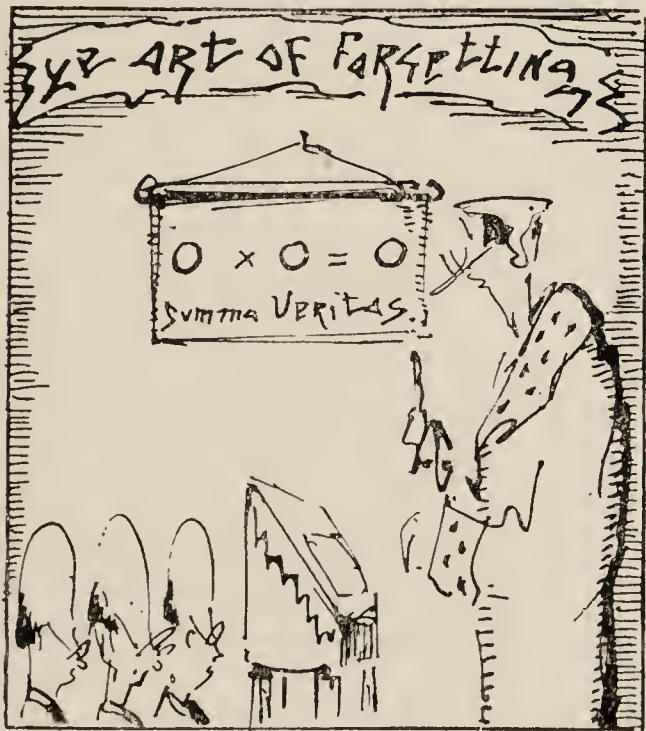
my world there were Frenchmen and Englishmen and Scotchmen (especially the latter, as I saw one wearing kilts shortly after my seventh birthday), and there were Germans and even Russians, whose stamps you must not allow to be touched by water when you put them into your stamp-album because the paint would come off, and Negroes and Red Indians. But there were no Burgundians, and why I should be obliged to learn the names of a dozen Burgundian princes who had ruled the country of Holland when there really weren't any Burgundians, was something I completely failed to understand. But I had to learn them, together with their dates, or suffer punishment. It was rather disheartening, but it was inevitable, for it was part of the curriculum and the curriculum, like the Ten Commandments (which I also duly learned by heart without understanding why murder and sabbath-breaking should be fellow-crimes, both worthy of special denunciation), was handed down unto us by the hand of God himself and therefore not to be questioned.



When I was seven years old, however, the thing began in real and deadening seriousness. The rivers of Europe and the promontories of Asia and the volcanoes of Java and the mountain ranges of Spain and the export of Kangaroo tails from Australia, were poured into my patient little brains. Next

came the irregular verbs of the noble Gallic tongue. Next the strange habits of the German prepositions. Next the Latin Syntax. Next the incredible Greek verbs which obeyed no rules whatsoever, but were terrible tyrants and cruel taskmasters and caused me more misery than anything that had happened since the fall of Adam.

From then until I was about thirty-five years old, when the poor crazy King of Bavaria by means of his Vice-Regent, the Rector Magnificus of the University of Munich, handed me a hefty parchment Bull and I was supposed to be so full of learning that I could henceforth share the contents of my cranium with less fortunate mortals—until that glorious hour when one felt “now at last I know it all”, my poor brain was filled and filled and filled with wisdom, with tabulated wisdom, classified, synchronised and codified wisdom, but wisdom nevertheless, an endless process of adding and adding and evermore adding things to be ‘known’ and things to be ‘remembered’ to those already stowed away—a performance so ghastly that even to-day I shudder when I think of what happened to me between the ages of seven and thirty-seven. I survived, but only because I had the physique of a coalheaver and because I had a marvellous natural faculty for forgetting. And that

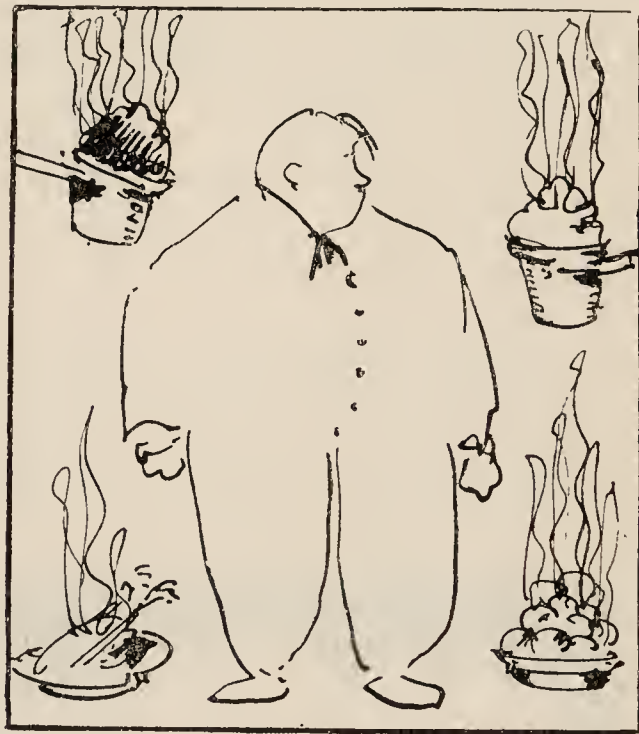


brings me to the little sermon I should like to preach to-day . . . the absolute necessity for a new branch of learning . . . a chair held by the most eminent of all eminent teachers now engaged within the sterile fields of Pedagogy—a Chair for the Art of Forgetting.

* * * *

Laugh not, for the matter is serious!

Another century of the present method of instruction and our race is doomed. “Cerebral auto-intoxication” will be the diagnosis, but alas! there will be no cure. And we shall die from mental over-feeding just as the better-class Romans of the third century died from over-indulgence in the products of their refined Egyptian kitchens, as whole generations of mediæval knights died from extravagant use of beef, mutton and pork. We shall die the dreadful death of the glutton, but without first partaking of the pleasures connected with the palate. And no one will either envy us or pity us. I doubt whether a single one of the surviving animals will feel compelled to follow us to the cemetery. For we shall have fallen as victims to a system that is as silly as it is worthless—the system of indiscriminate acquisition without adequate expenditure.



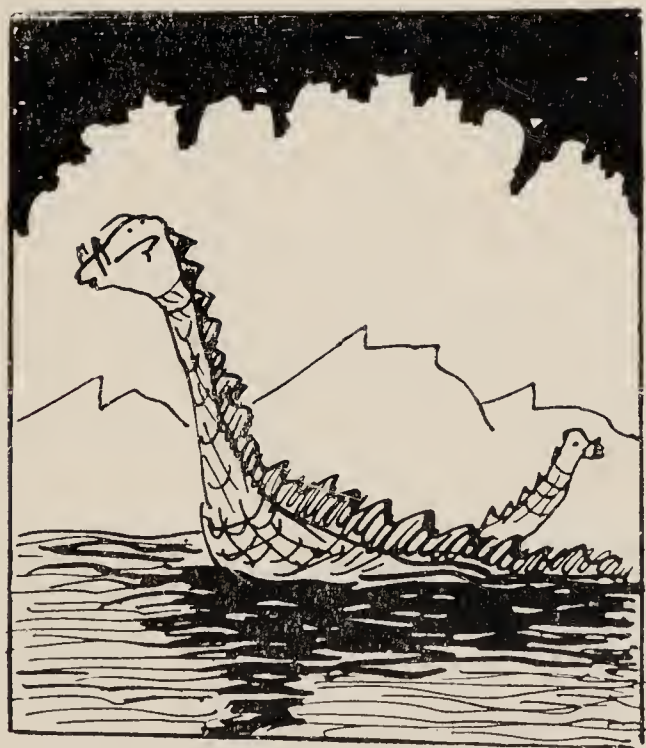
Within the field of applied economics this is no longer possible. The state does not allow it. But within the domain of pedagogy all things are possible. Hence my complaint, and my peremptory request that “something be done about this at once”.

* * * *

What this ‘something’ is to be, I do not know. And to be perfectly honest, I don’t think that my plan will prove feasible. For if it ever gets adopted it will mean the elimination of ninety per cent of all schoolmasters and the training of the other ten per cent into super-school-teachers, and in such a case the Ninety will probably destroy the Ten, even as the lean kine annihilated their fat brethren, long before the Ten have

even learned half of their new lessons. In history (if that wayward Muse teaches anything at all) it is not only unreasonable but also quite impossible to ask one class of society to commit suicide for the benefit of another, and my proposal would mean nothing less than wholesale suicide for quite a number of people, or wholesale migration to the remotest wheat-fields of Canada, and that, in the long run, would mean the same. There is therefore only one way to reach the desired conclusion and bring about the highly desirable end: to appoint a special Professor of the Art of Forgetting who shall try to undo the work of the lower grade schools as soon as the pupils of those establishments of learning have been surrendered by those institutions to enter upon their further academic adventures.

Of course there always will be certain unruly youngsters with healthy intellectual constitutions who will be able to rid themselves of the poison of knowing-too-much by the simple process by which babies, possessed of iron tummies, settle the problem of too rich a diet of milk. But the vast majority of all young creatures is of an incredible docility and will wear or think or do or fail to do whatever their elders tell them to wear or think or do, without questioning the wisdom of these parental ukases for a single moment. "Papa has said it and therefore it is so", is the basis of respect-



able living, and since respectable living will be 'the good life' to untold millions for countless years to come, Papa (or his substitute, the school-teacher) will be able to

feed his offspring the most undigestible diet imaginable for at least another five hundred years. But that is too long a period to prevent us from becoming a race of intellectual dynosauri, beasts of such sluggish, overfed mental habits that they shall be able neither to swim nor to crawl nor to walk, but must for ever wallow through the mire of useless and uncorrelated facts until from sheer inability to escape, they shall fall a victim to some other race of mammals, of cats or dogs, or perchance of the nimble-fingered beaver, who only need build one gigantic dam to drown them all.

* * * *

Perhaps, now that the Medicine Men have developed such a marvellous technique in removing objectionable obstructions from the atomic commonweal known as the Human Body, we may look for help from the side of the surgical theatre. I can imagine a simple operation, infinitely less complicated than the extraction of the pituitary gland and much less painful than the pulling of a wilful wisdom-tooth, which would restore a boy or girl of nineteen or twenty almost overnight to that bright normal cheerfulness and optimism which goes with perfect mental health. I do not even know whether it would be necessary to use an anæsthetic, as the patients after fifteen years of the usual system of schooling are so absolutely numb to all outer sensations that they would never feel the knife, and would submit to the operation as merrily as they would to an ordinary haircut. But if the doctors should pronounce against this plan (one never knows what doctors will do), we might try the methods followed by the learned professors who are in charge of our hospitals for the sniffers of 'snow' or (for those not familiar with American police-court terms) for the poor victims of a too protracted use of heroin or hasheesh. It is now generally conceded that those poor creatures should not be too suddenly deprived of their pleasant means of escape from life's unbearable realities. The shock not only might kill them but as a rule doth kill them. The dangerous nepenthe therefore must be taken away from them slowly and in small doses, until they no longer feel the need of this artificial stimulant and are dismissed as cured. It may be necessary to develop a similar method to disaccustom

the victims of our present system of education from the overdoses of intellectual ballast which had been forced upon them for at least fifteen years of their lives and allow them to be contented once more with the normal everyday diet of normal everyday people. A great deal of exercise in the open and simple pastimes such as dancing and sailing boats on choppy seas and making love to dangerous females, may hasten the cure. Also a fortnight spent on an uninhabited island with ten cans of condensed soup, but without a can-opener, may prove very useful.

But all this I am willing to leave to the royal commission which will take charge of this important matter. I shall judge myself well repaid for the trouble I have taken in exposing the need for this sort of professorial interference if a thousand years from now, when this idea shall not only have been thoroughly developed but shall also have been put into practice—if then some simple memorial tablet, placed in an

inconspicuous spot, shall simply state “here lived the man who taught us that it is more blessed to forget than to remember”.



It would be the only epitaph which would truly make me feel that I had not entirely lived in vain.

A MEDIAEVAL LEGEND

Saint Peter who in weariness did lean
Against the seventh wall of chrysolite,
Aroused himself, for yonder could be seen
Four Mediæval men come into sight.

The foremost one, a Lord of high degree,
Sedately strode toward the pearly gate
As if this Paradise would only be
An acquisition to his vast estate.

The second came, a bishop most benign,
Who, waddling in his velvet finery,
Bore ample proof that partridge broiled in wine
Was part of conscientious piety.

The third, a serf, whose fate had been to plod,
On seeing Heaven's ramparts in the sky,
Cried out in fear, "There must be serfs of God
To hoist the lumps of amethyst so high!"

The fourth, a monk, who followed last of all,
Approached with halting steps, for he was sad
To see that Paradise must have a wall . . .
Yes, even as the monastery had!

Saint Peter tipped his halo with respect,
"Good tidings and a welcome, Sirs," said he,

"What part of Paradise will you select
In which to while away Eternity?"

"I sicken of my castle," said the Lord.
"Give me the simple cottage of a serf,
And let me dwell with nature," he implored,
"To reap a frugal living from the turf!"

"My pomp is fraud," the Bishop said,
"So let me live a monkish life alone.
I would forego my scented feather bed
To sleep upon the monastery stone."

The serf, revolting in his feudal yoke,
Declared, "Good Peter, pray bequeath me this;"
And fingered at the Lord's brocaded cloak:
"And give me castles on a precipice!"

"The stark privations of my narrow creed,"
The monk avowed, "are much to my distaste.
Oh, could I but afford the Bishop's greed,
And let a partridge swell my sagging waist!"

As each request was promptly granted then,
We find ourselves incapable to tell
If these four Mediæval gentlemen
Consigned themselves to Heaven or to Hell.

—Boy, aged 17, pupil of Lincoln School,
New York City.

An Investigation of Racial Prejudice in Children of School Age in Wales

By G. H. Green, Ph.D., B.Sc., B.Litt., and Sydney Herbert, M.A.

(University College of Wales, Aberystwyth)

ANY attempt to combat racial prejudice should begin with clear notions of the character of racial prejudice, the extent to which it exists and the forms in which it is manifested.

What we know about racial prejudice has been gathered in one of two ways. Either a man studies closely the behaviour of a number of his fellows on an occasion when they are compelled to take sides in a conflict between their own group and another, or he collects the opinions of a number of people as to whether racial prejudice exists in others known to them. Neither of these methods is likely to lead to a result possessing objective validity.

Consequently, when the Educational Advisory Committee of the Welsh Council of the League of Nations Union recently asked us to investigate the matter of racial prejudice in children attending the schools of Wales, we tried to devise a method of gathering information which should be completely independent of opinion. The tests of racial prejudice we chose were two. We tried to discover by means of two simply worded papers of printed questions if children of school age were willing—

- (a) To give preference to one group of people over another, solely on the ground of membership of the group.
- (b) To ascribe favourable or unfavourable character traits to whole groups of people, as distinct from individual members of the group.

Since we wished to apply the same test throughout a school, it was necessary to restrict the questions to groups of peoples familiar to the children, by name at least. A preliminary test in a rural school showed that children of seven years and over were willing to express opinions about the Chinese, French, Germans, Americans, Italians, Russians, Spanish and Negroes. (It will be noted that the term 'racial' is not employed in a rigorous anthropological sense.) The questions on our first paper took the form:

Which do you like better—CHINESE or NEGROES? Why? Those of the second paper took the form: Which of these peoples are CLEVER? Why do you think so?

The teacher was asked to call out the children separately, when the papers had been collected and the pupils set to work, and to ask them, with reference to the statements they had written: "How do you know this?" He would then indicate, by an initial letter the alleged source of the opinion expressed—School, Home, a Book, the Newspaper, direct Experience, Religious institutions, or the Cinematograph. Sometimes it was necessary to use more than one letter, or to comment when other sources were mentioned.

It should be noted here that our paper differs from the ordinary *questionnaire* in that the statement made is regarded as being of little importance. The proof of racial prejudice lies in the assertion that certain groups are clever, or brave, or cowardly, or honest, or silly; or in the choice of one group as preferable to another. The value of the statement is that it is a means of defending the prejudice: it has, that is to say, something of the quality of what some psychologists term a 'rationalisation'. The indication of the alleged source of the statement merely tells us from what sources children draw the means of defending their prejudices.

The means at our disposal did not allow us to extend our enquiry to the whole of the schools of Wales. We were able, however, to choose schools in areas of widely differing character—in seaports where foreigners (members of the groups referred to in our question papers) were frequently seen by school children; in large industrial towns; and in remote country districts where many of the children had never seen a cinematograph, and none or few had ever actually met a foreigner. Some of the schools were primary, some central and some secondary; some were boys' schools, some girls', and some mixed. The age range was from seven

to seventeen, though the larger number of the pupils available to us were aged from ten to fifteen.

We were surprised to find that, with exceptions amounting to only a fraction of one per cent, pupils did not hesitate to assert that the members of one group were preferable to those of another, or that the members of certain groups possessed desirable or undesirable character traits. The exceptions were irregularly distributed. That is to say, refusals to state a preference, or to ascribe a character trait to a group, were sporadic. A single member of a class might refuse, or one or two. Generally speaking, pupils of sixteen were as willing to make a choice as pupils of ten. We were compelled to make the inference that, judging by our sample, racial prejudice (as indicated by our test) is practically universal in children of school age attending the public schools of Wales.

We had to take into account the possibility that the statement of preference for one group over another does not indicate a true prejudice, but is purely the result of chance. In such a case, the result of asking some thousands of children to choose between Chinese and Negroes would be that approximately fifty per cent would prefer the one and fifty per cent the other; possibly the presentation of 'Chinese' first in order would bias the voting slightly against the 'Negroes'. But we found that the voting was in favour of Negroes, these being preferred to Chinese in the proportion of about three to one. Further, this result was fairly uniform throughout the schools investigated. It seems clear to us that we must assume prejudice of a fairly constant character, which is largely independent of such variations of environment and accidents of circumstance as occur within the principality.

It was clear to us, in the course of the enquiry, that accidents of circumstance count for something. The papers sent to one area were sent out later than the bulk, and were given to the children at the time when British troops had been dispatched to China to protect British residents. In the other areas preference had been given to Chinese over Germans; but in this instance the preference was the other way about. The

alleged ground was that the Chinese were at war with us, and the statement was alleged to be based on newspaper statements.

The sources to which statements are ascribed vary greatly in order of importance. Frequency of ascription varies a good deal with age, naturally: young children refer to 'Home' frequently, and to 'Newspapers' very seldom, whilst older children refer to newspapers more frequently, and to home more rarely. Detailed tables of figures would be necessary to show the exact character of this variation, and to indicate its significance; and for these a great deal of space would be necessary. But a generalised and not misleading statement of frequency of ascription of the statements made in support of prejudice is the following: books 50%; school 10%; newspapers 10%; home 10%; experience 10%; cinema 10%; religious organisations practically zero.

The last figure calls for some explanation. It does not indicate that the church, the chapel and the Sunday school have no influence on Welsh life; everybody who knows Wales at all knows that they have a good deal. It means rather that they have not in general dealt specifically with the question of racial prejudice. Some of the answers we have received indicate that the stories of missionary effort have had an effect which was certainly not intended: the child has been prejudiced against the people who have treated the missionary badly.

The total impression left on our minds is that racial prejudice is fairly constant in children of school age, and exists in them before the age of seven. There appear to be changes of justification, without changes of prejudice, as school life goes on and age increases. Miss Elsie Schatzmann, of the Institute of the Sciences of Education, of Geneva, hopes to repeat our enquiry in the schools of Geneva, and her experiment will afford us data by which we may check our own. Meanwhile, we realise that further work is necessary before the origins of racial prejudice can be discussed; and, since this enquiry will have to be carried out with children younger than those with whom we have experimented, a new technique must be devised.

A Museum for Boys and Girls

By C. H. B. Quennell

(Joint author of *The History of Everyday Things in England*, and of the *Everyday Life Series*)

I BELIEVE that a Museum for boys and girls might be a most valuable instrument in education, and might help the children when they are men and women, to carry on the work of the world in a pleasant way.

Elementary and preparatory schools are, quite properly, concerned solely with providing apparatus for obtaining knowledge. Secondary schools are Spartan in conception rather than Athenian, and on their humaner sides literary and not creative. Weary years are spent in learning a language which remains, for the majority, absolutely dead. Perhaps 5 per cent get a little joy out of it. These children hear nothing of the everyday life of Greece, or Rome, or of the great discoveries of Schliemann and Evans.

Those on the science side—generally the brightest and keenest—may persevere with Latin, because the schools certificate is useful for the universities, but their scientific education is far too vocational, and they officially hear nothing of the arts of Greece and Rome, and (still more amazing) nothing of the rise of the sciences in Greece. Half the ills of the modern world would seem to spring from the fact that we are turning out people in these two steady streams.

The man on the classical side may be able to spell out a Latin epitaph on a tomb; he will have a public school accent; the habit of command; can be counted on to play the game in all circumstances; will be trustworthy, and prepared to die in a ditch if he is told to do so. All admirable qualities. But he will know nothing of the work of man, or of the creative arts. Architecture will mean nothing to him. He will not be able to play any knowledgeable part in carrying on the work, and in settling the questions which continually arise in this mechanical age. We will call these class 'A'.

Those who have been brought up on the science side, and who know nothing of the arts, become the engineers, people prepared to do the most terrible things at the shortest notice. They run pylons across

the Downs; build generating stations in the middle of cities, and generally play 'old Harry'. Call them class 'B'.

Class 'B' cannot be controlled by class 'A' because these lack knowledge, and it is the technician or class 'B' who is making modern England. This lack of knowledge plays its part in unemployment, because we are not producing goods sufficiently attractive to find purchasers. Sweden is now leading the world in the industrial arts, mainly because of its fine educational system, and its many interesting museums. In the creative arts we are years behind progressive countries like Sweden, Holland, Germany and France. *New Era* readers will have noticed the controversy with regard to the proposed new Sacristy at Westminster Abbey. It is a terrible state of affairs when we are positively ashamed to make an addition to the Abbey which, according to the Dean and Chapter, is badly needed. Our Cathedrals would not be the living histories in stone that they are if the mediæval churchmen had not been better served.

Many years ago Mr. John Burns brought in his Town Planning Act, but we have not learned the lesson even yet. One glaring example is the cutting down of trees, and building on the gardens in Euston Square. A grey, dingy neighbourhood, where trees are badly needed. Here is one of the great gateways into London, and every American who lands at Liverpool sees Euston Square as he drives away from the station—and what a sight! A most amazing example of muddle and ineptitude.

What has a Museum for boys and girls to do with all this? Well, it might be the cure. In the Museum, not only would the children be able to form an idea of the background to their school history lessons, but by the exhibit of actual objects, photographs and models, see exactly what their forefathers did. Class 'A' might gain knowledge; class 'B' some idea of what is meant by Beauty.

A School Historical Pageant

By Elsa Nunn, M.A.

(formerly History Mistress at Putney High School, G.P.D.S.T.)

Our pageant was the result of an attempt to make "history people" live. It was decided that it should (i) give opportunity to each class to present a scene from the period it was studying; (ii) illustrate various types of society and ceremony; (iii) have some common running interest. The last condition proved the most difficult and was somewhat unsatisfactorily met by the choice of episodes from the history of London. We were further limited by the fact that the pageant was to be presented by schoolgirls in a school garden.

The lower fourths undertook the Dedication of St. Paul's Cathedral in the presence of Henry III and his wife in 1240, and the meeting of Richard II with the rebellious peasants in 1381. The first episode showed the procession round the Church and the ceremony by which the Archbishop of Canterbury demanded and obtained admission to the new cathedral, giving scope for the display of ecclesiastical ceremonial. The second depicted the dramatic incident of the assumption of leadership by the young king.

The upper fourths took Queen Elizabeth's visit to Master Lacey, a wealthy London clothworker resident in Putney, and the proclamation of Charles II at Temple Bar. These afforded opportunity for presenting an Elizabethan masque and court dances, and for the display of civic ceremonial. Episode V was allotted to the lower fifths and showed a bowling-party given by Lady Petersham to Horace Walpole at Bowling Green House, Putney, in 1750.

The senior girls prepared Episode III, the setting out of the Canterbury Pilgrims from Southwark in 1387. Members of the junior forms were employed as pages, children, servers and 'crowd', while we commissioned the services of the school orchestra, a choir and twenty country dancers. In all, about three hundred girls were engaged.

Our first task was to apportion the work, each producer assuming complete responsibility for her episode, including action, words, casting, dresses and properties. General oversight of the whole pageant and

arrangement of concerted actions fell to the lot of the senior history mistress, and the art mistresses nobly relieved the producers of all anxiety regarding decoration. One of their triumphs was the production of orpherys for four episcopal copes, the patterns being based on contemporary designs and executed in paint by the girls. Wherever possible, such work was done by the girl who was to wear the dress. For some two months every spare corner of the studio was filled with military and ecclesiastical banners, surcoats, pots of gold paint and the like.

Another member of the staff who was speedily drawn into the work was the music mistress. We planned to have between the episodes either vocal or orchestral music, which was to be as far as possible contemporary. As a result, the music varied from the plainchant of Episode I and the mediæval round, "Sumer is i-comen in" to Elizabethan Madrigals and Purcell's Suites for Strings. In addition, a group of country dances, drawn from the third edition of Playford's "Dancing Master" (c. 1670), was performed between Episodes V and VI to the music of a fiddle.

One other person must be mentioned: the school caretaker, who filled the exacting role of property and general utility man. He solved all problems from the erection of a substantial building which served successively as St. Paul's Cathedral, the Tabard Inn, Lacey's house at Putney and Bowling Green House, to the manufacture of five splendid croziers from discarded gas brackets, and a civic mace from an old hockey ball and brass wire (decorated with pearls from Woolworth's).

Almost all the costumes were made by the performers or their long-suffering mothers. The materials were purchased and cut out by the producers, each child then putting her own dress together. Gaily coloured materials were used, such as sateen and casement cloth, while unbleached sheeting proved excellent for surcoats, trains and masquers' dresses. The final effect could

hardly have been bettered. The construction of armour gave some anxious moments, but finally buckram and grey-dyed washing-up swabs presented a convincing imitation.

As finance is a serious factor in an undertaking of this kind, a brief note upon our procedure may be useful. Those performers whose dresses were hired were told that they must accept the parts only on condition that they were prepared to pay their hire. A few of the made dresses cost only 2/6, and the rest averaged about 4/- in cost. We therefore decided to make this charge to each performer, and in doing so recovered almost completely the cost of the materials. A charge of 1/6 was made for a printed programme of admission, and nearly 1,000 people witnessed the two performances. Out of the money thus raised, we paid for all properties and incidental expenses, made a substantial contribution towards the tea which was served to all visitors and performers, and with the balance presented about twenty books to the history section of the school library.

No account of the pageant would be com-

plete without some attempt to describe its setting. We possessed a playing field backed by a bush-covered bank and a number of trees, completely hiding the school buildings from the audience and acting as a screen for performers waiting to play their parts, and in addition providing variety of entrances and exits and forming a completely satisfactory background for dresses and banners. The single piece of 'scenery' was the building of wood and canvas already referred to, provided with real doors. The performances were heralded by a fanfare of trumpets (provided by the trumpeters of the local scouts, concealed in the bushes), and closed with singing by all the performers.

Was it worth it? Most certainly 'Yes'. The looking up and planning of details; the adaptation of historic ornament and music to practical purposes; the training in dignified ceremonial and dance—all had great value. But the final test of the worth of the enterprise was its revelation to the players, and, we hope, also to the audience, of the living reality of history.

The Brussels Mondaneum and the Teaching of History

By E. A. De Bevere

(*London Delegate of the Mondaneum*)

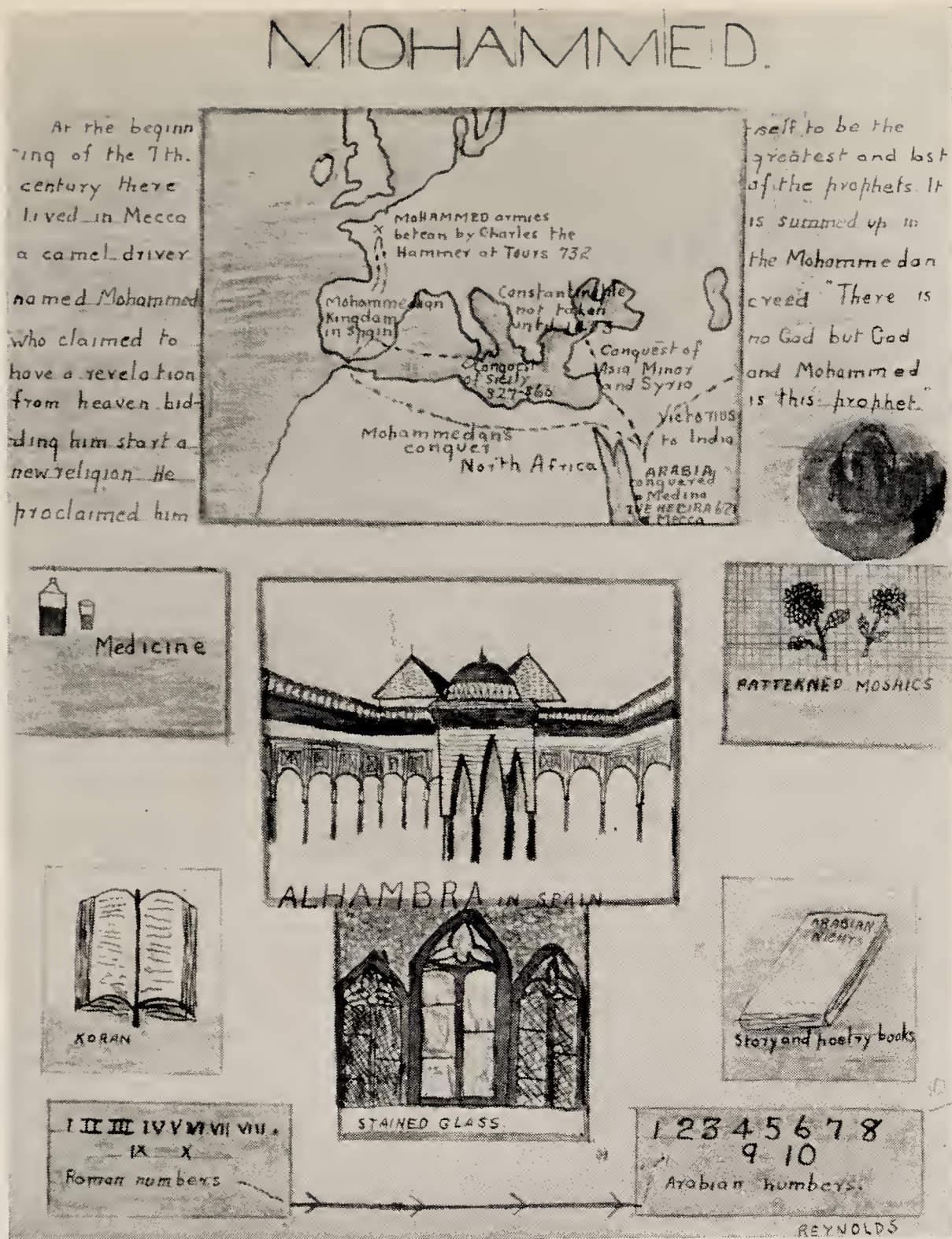
A MAIN characteristic of modern times is the steady and increasing development of science in all its aspects. Keeping pace with its constant progress is one of the hardest and most perplexing problems with which the student of any branch of knowledge is faced. And when the subject to be mastered is history the difficulties seem insuperable; for history is an encyclopædic science dependent for its conclusions on the development of practically all the sciences which deal with human phenomena.

The duties of history are twofold: to reconstruct the past and to interpret it. But how is a student of history to form an adequate idea of the intricate political, commercial, industrial and intellectual life of a particular period, if he has no opportunity but that afforded by abstract description, to

view the different aspects of the historical reality? Where will he find a synthetical reconstruction of the past?

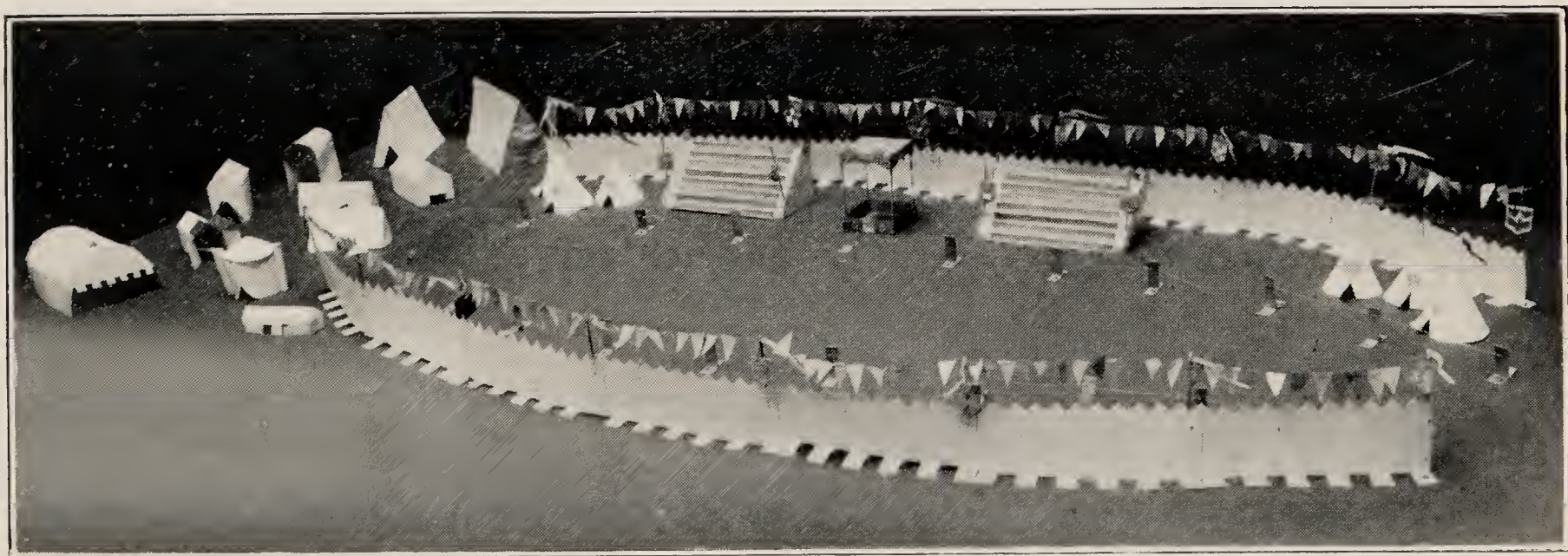
There are, it is true, museums; but unfortunately they have hitherto failed to exhibit synthetical reproductions of any particular group of phenomena. In one part of the British Museum, for example, can be seen Roman ceramics and glassware; in another section there are Roman vases; in one room Roman medals can be viewed, in another, Roman sculptures; but where has the student an opportunity to see with his own eyes a synthetical reconstruction of, say, the social life in Rome at the time of Cicero? Where is one to find an equivalent to the American Museum-Habitat, devoted to the illustration of history?

I mentioned the British Museum because it



Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury
EXAMPLE OF RECORD CHART ON MOHAMMED

(Some thirty of these are made during a first year's course of World History, each one recording in pictorial form a section of the work done)



The Holt School, Liverpool
MODEL OF TOURNAMENT (Group Work)



Paul Bréchet (age 15)

A BRIDGE IN THE MIDDLE AGES



Reginald Raab

Frensham Heights School, Farnham

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

is undoubtedly the most important museum in the world, possessing the richest and most complete collections, and attracting the greatest number of students and scholars from all continents. I have not the remotest intention of slighting its indisputable merits or its high educational value; but I do think that a new kind of institution is needed, enabling students to view the life of a particular period, actually lived, as it were, before their eyes, a sort of living encyclopædia, grouping facts organically and taking account of the latest progress of scholarship and science.

This new institution should be an instrument for the education of the general public. It should attract their interest by exhibiting a limited number of typical objects, well displayed, clearly explained and placed in an environment faithfully reproducing the historical atmosphere and spirit of the period concerned.

This is what the founders of the Brussels Mondaneum have aimed at. The Mondaneum is not exclusively a historical museum, but the most important section is that which deals with the evolution of civilisation from the prehistoric period down to modern times.

The historical department comprises about twenty rooms; each period of history has its own room, where is reproduced as fully and as accurately as possible the different aspects of the period. For example, in the Roman Empire Room are the following classes of objects: scale models, panoramas and various implements, weapons, etc., in glass cases; statues; paintings; drawings and photos; charts; maps.

Among the scale models one finds *houses*, constructed in such a way as to enable students to notice the internal arrangement of rooms, yards, gardens, etc., *panoramas* of Rome, *temples*, with reproductions of the different types of altars and priests modelled in lifelike attitudes, offering sacrifices to the divinities; also all kinds of *tools*, *vessels*, *implements*, etc., faithfully reproduced. On each model there is a label,

clearly and concisely explaining the use or purpose of the different parts of the building or object on view.

On the walls there are reproductions of paintings made by artists who have attempted to interpret certain aspects of Roman life, and drawings and photos representing costumes, weapons, scenes of everyday life, etc.; numerous charts illustrate the origin, development and evolution of Roman institutions in regard to education, justice, religion, civil administration, the army and navy, etc. The same kind of objects are exhibited in a similar way in the Egyptian Room, the Greek Room, the Seventeenth Century Room, and so on. Periodically, the collections are revised in the light of recent researches and discoveries.

The Mondaneum is very popular. The Sunday morning lectures are attended by large audiences, and during the week teachers frequently come with their classes to give their lessons in some section. In summer time crowds of people, not only from all parts of the country, but from countries all over the world, come to visit it.

All the most important models, charts and maps have been reproduced on postcards, costing $\frac{1}{2}$ d. each, and in large atlases called "Atlases of Civilisation". It is therefore possible for any school, in any part of the world, to make use of the collections.

The Mondaneum started in a very humble way; it was originally composed, some thirty years ago, of a few charts and maps made by that indefatigable pioneer of international education, the founder and present director of this institution, Mr. Paul Otlet. Nearly all the collections are the result of voluntary contributions—may this give hope and courage to those who are endeavouring to create in London a new museum similar to the Mondaneum!

The director and staff of the Mondaneum will always be glad to offer help and give advice to pioneers of new thought and modern education in this country.

International Gatherings of School Children

By E. M. Gilpin

(Principal of the Hall School, Weybridge, Surrey)

THESE summer schools for boys and girls of twelve to sixteen years began in August, 1927. The first was held at the Château of Bierville, near Etampes, when 150 children, French, German and English, with their leaders and teachers, met together for a fortnight's intercourse; the second gathering was held at Freiburg, Breisgau, and the third at Bedales School, England.

The aims of these gatherings are twofold: social intercourse—living together, getting to know and to understand one another—and the study of the three languages. For, as well as leaders, each group brings trained teachers who understand living methods in dealing with the teaching of living languages.

Each morning groups of about twenty give two hours to work. They prepare scenes, songs in action, charades, or anything they like. Each evening there is a united gathering, when an entertainment is given by the groups, the only rule being that every child shall speak in a foreign language. For example, a group of children of the three nationalities produced "How the Wren got his Name" (Grimm). English nightingales, larks, robins and swallows meet companies of German and French songsters, all on their way to the appointed meeting-place where they are to choose a king. The Eagle and the Wren both speak German; the Owl is French and his wife German, "Frau Eule". Finally, the Wren, proclaiming loudly, "König bin ich!" is chased away by the whole company, which then breaks up into its national groups, who leave the stage singing folk-songs of the three nations in their flight. The English children spoke French, the French children German, and the German children English.

We have every year a strong music staff, and an orchestra and choir are formed. Last year an interesting music test was arranged. Well-known airs by different composers were played on piano and violin, and all were asked to write down the name of each melody and of its composer. Another evening, by means of a projector, world-famed

pictures were shown and identified. By these and other means we have been able to bring home to the young people of three nations how much of the greatest art is international and belongs to all.

The rule of retiring at sixteen is rarely broken, for the organisation is planned for children and not for adults, and it is essential for the success of the venture that the ages shall not differ too widely. One German boy of sixteen who was refused by the German leader, went to Paris, found that the French group was not full, enrolled himself as a Frenchman and turned up at Bedales with that party! His conduct was perhaps reprehensible, but he was not sent away.

While no claim is made that much definite progress in languages is possible in so short a time, it is certain that every child who has been a member of one of these gatherings must feel that he has been right in the middle of the living thing, and a new meaning is henceforth given to his language lessons at school. For during these stimulating days, all too short, the boys and girls have talked, played, lived together, and they certainly carry home with them many memories which will not fade.

This year our meeting is to take place, by the kind permission of Dr. Pryn's Hopkins, the founder of the Château de Bures School near St. Germain-en-Laye, at the School, from August 2 to August 19. Provision is being made for 170 people. The girls will be housed in the old Château and the boys in the new wing. The summer school will have the free use of the large new gymnasium, swimming-bath, sports grounds, library and theatre. Bures is a hamlet about ten kilometres from St. Germain. It is on high ground overlooking the valley of the Seine. It is an excellent centre for walks and excursions, and Paris is only about twenty-five miles distant.

The organisers of the gathering are very grateful to Dr. Pryn's Hopkins, and to the School's Board of Advisers, for making it possible to meet in so favoured a spot.

The History Reference Council

By Henry Copley Greene

(Secretary to the History Reference Council)

To see and feel as men saw and felt in past ages, we need to familiarise ourselves with the arts in which their spirit expressed itself. To realize the life of the twelfth century in France, say, we must make—and act on—some such survey of its civilisation as that which Joseph Bédier condensed into this sentence: “It was then, about the year 1100, that there appeared, almost tumultuously, the first crusade—and also the first Gothic arch—and also the first stained glass window—and also the first liturgical play—and also the first tournament—and also the first communal charter of liberty—and also the first troubadour’s first song: all of them unforeseen creations, bursting at one time from the soil of France.”

What better basis for action than this can a teacher have who aims at giving his pupils at least a partial understanding of the twelfth century in France? Action will first mean knowing every item in Bédier’s astounding list. Secondly in time, though first in purpose, it must also mean arousing his pupils’ imagination to grasp and enjoy significant specimens of each of the arts involved.

The First Crusade. Seventh grade children have studied with keen interest eye-witnesses’ accounts of the crusaders’ long journey; also their letters; for the Arab’s view, passages from Ousama; and for views of how children and old people also served they have read Guibert de Nogent. With dialogue taken largely verbatim from these sources, the children have made and acted a play of simple realism.

The First Gothic Arch. From ground plans and vaulting plans a few secondary school pupils have grasped the Gothic vault-building problems, and have used, in reproduction, Villard de Honnecourt’s thirteenth century drawings; and they have solved the problems in action, so to speak, by building miniature Gothic vaults stably, with shaped ‘stones’ that are simply cardboard—tiny boxes filled with sand.

Stained Glass. The superb twelfth century west windows at Chartres are of course largely dependent, for their qualities of design, on structural questions of leading. Nearly contemporary descriptions by the monk Theophilus make these as clear to high school students of to-day as to the craftsmen of Theophilus’ own time. Photostatic reproductions show the Chartres leading in characteristic designs: and colour notes made on the spot illustrate the principles of colour-contrast and colour-fusion as set forth also by Theophilus.

A Liturgical Play. A whole school took part in 1928 in a liturgical nativity play transcribed from the eleventh century manuscript at St. Benoit sur Loire. The Latin Department, which had become interested in mediæval Latin as the spoken language of mediæval “clerks,” induced the Music Department to study the Gregorian musical text. The Music Department soon discovered melodies there which it could not afford to neglect. Finally the Art Department transformed a gymnasium into a Romanesque abbey church in whose raised choir the action of the play took place.

The First Troubadour’s First Song. Reckoned the first of the troubadours, Guillaume d’Aquitaine is a brilliant if somewhat legendary figure. Which of his songs was his first is not known; but several of them, well translated into English, have only to be heard to be enjoyed in schools to-day. And this is even more true of the songs of Bernard de Ventadour, friend of that troubadour King, Richard of the Lion Heart.

These few examples suggest how source material may be used even in elementary education. To meet the practical difficulties the History Reference Council has been organized. Three years ago some of the schools began to search out, translate, privately print and distribute to members, materials such as these described. The publications include photostatic reproduc-

tions of graphic material, and photographs and mimeographed music, as well as printed bulletins containing notes for teachers and excerpts from sources.

As this material accumulates it illustrates such cross sections of different centuries as that which M. Bédier so revealingly showed for the twelfth, and at the same time it may be used in chronological studies of special arts. Occasional bulletins on early science or mathematics help to give this work a historical background. But beyond and including all these uses is the spirit of imaginative sympathy and understanding which such material strengthens in both teachers and pupils.

The Council consists of five Central Member Schools in or near Boston, Massachusetts. A considerably larger number of schools in the United States have joined as Corresponding Members. These schools receive enough copies of each bulletin for individual use by the members of one history class; they may purchase at cost any or all of the graphic material published.

The Corresponding Members have a share in planning the programme of work and publication for the year, but the chief responsibility is of necessity in the hands of the Central Members. The heads of these five schools, with the Director of the Bookshop for Boys and Girls (Boston), form the Council. The Teachers' Committee, composed of a teacher representative from each of the Central Member Schools, plans the detail of the year's programme, with all possible consideration of the requests from other members and the courses of study in general practice. The Secretary carries out the programme as closely as possible, finding the material, editing it and seeing it through the press.

As resources are limited, it is important to concentrate in order to secure the groupings of bulletins around related subjects. We have therefore chosen as the present field the period from A.D. 900 to 1650 in

France and England. The Secretary is, however, very glad to correspond with teachers about any special requests.

The Council is eager to be of use to teachers in other countries who may be interested in its work. Memberships for the year 1930-1931 (which begin next September) for schools and individuals outside the United States are as follows. Schools within the Postal Union limits, \$7.50 (£1.11.3); outside these, \$10.00 (£2.1.8). Individuals within the Postal Union limits, \$2.50 (10s. 5d.); outside these, \$3.50 (14s. 7d.).

The Council would be glad to receive applications for membership for the year 1930-1931 at any time from now on—the earlier the better.

Individual membership includes the following service. One copy of each of the forty bulletins issued during the year. One copy of each of the Council circular letters to teachers on topics of general interest—Christmas plays, special material for the correlation of art and history teaching, bibliographies, etc. One copy each of the graphic material as issued—reproductions of early maps, photographs, ground plans of castles, etc. Individual consideration of questions and requests.

In return the Council asks co-operation in getting into touch with interesting material, and in making suggestions for improving the service. This is a non-profit-making co-operative endeavour. The active help of every member is of real value.

A file of the 1927-1929 series of Bulletins may be seen at the office of the *New Era*. If any readers of this article are interested in joining the Council they are asked to communicate with the Chairman or the Secretary:—

KATHARINE TAYLOR, Chairman (*Shady Hill School, Cambridge, Massachusetts, U.S.A.*)

HENRY COPLEY GREENE, Secretary (14, *Kirkland Place, Cambridge, Massachusetts, U.S.A.*)

Some Suggestions on Individual Work for Children Under Fifteen

Introduced by Dorothy Dymond, M.A.

(Lecturer in History at Goldsmiths' College, University of London)

HISTORY teachers interested in the ebb and flow of fashions in the educational world may perhaps have discovered on a dusty shelf and read with amusement a little pamphlet written in 1887 by Oscar Browning on "The Teaching of History in Schools". In regard to subject matter it is remarkably modern, but in regard to method, our author is staggeringly out of accord with modern ideas. On the second page of his pamphlet these amazing words meet the eye: "The practice, which I fear is too common, of placing a textbook in the hands of a form, telling them to get up so many pages and then asking them questions, is the very worst method of teaching history, if indeed it can be called teaching history at all. . . . I lay it down as an axiom that there can be no teaching of history without a lecture from the teacher, and that any system which attempts to dispense with this cannot be considered as history teaching at all."

Oscar Browning but voiced the feelings of most teachers of his day who, confronted generally with dull and highly compressed textbooks, could think of no other way of making them interesting than to recite their contents fluently aloud to a stupefied audience. In many British schools, children and teacher seemed to fall under a sinister enchantment—the one doomed never to speak, the other never to cease from speaking. All through the 'eighties and 'nineties the history teacher was talking hard; in the early twentieth century he was still at it; and in many cases, although now with diminished glory, and grown a little hoarse with the passage of time, he performs his conscientious monologue to-day. Under this treatment history did really become what its opponents had prophesied: an easy alternative to classics and mathematics. The able teacher inspired his pupils with a romantic interest in history: the dull teacher, with an unromantic loathing; neither could foster a spirit of enquiry and self-help. The outstanding criticism of the 1927 report on

London schools was that the pupils spent too much time in listening.

One of the main problems of modern teachers is to find suitable ways of breaking this enchanted monologue. Not only is the textbook essential to good history teaching, but the child's library should be as varied, difficult and interesting to him as the large library is to the adult worker. He should learn to understand the use of a book of reference or a historical atlas, and to supplement his textbook by easy biographies or monographs. He may even learn to realise how greatly our knowledge of the past depends on records, and to use scraps of these records for himself. Perhaps the best source of all for children's use is the book of contemporary pictures. A child who has searched through Miss Elliot's "Life and Work of the People of England: the Seventeenth Century" (Batsford) to discover all possible facts about trade and transport has begun to understand something of his period and has learned it in a way he will not forget.

It is clear that these methods work to a certain climax. If the child becomes hard-working and curious in his attitude to seventeenth century history he is likely to become actively curious in his attitude towards the history of the present day. This is, in fact, the final aim of his history course: that he shall begin to understand his environment in the light of the past, and to view it with intelligent impersonal curiosity. In the one period of his own lifetime he is not only a student, but also a witness; he can not only read, but also observe; his personal knowledge of streets and towns and schools is suddenly seen to form a historical source. The culmination of a child's history course should be an enquiry on observational lines into the society of his immediate neighbourhood and the greater world behind it.

The material subjoined below describes the experiences of three teachers experimenting on these new lines. The first describes the

organisation and use of a school library; the second illustrates the use of sources; the third describes the study of present-day history through observation.

I—The Use of a School Library

Heath Clark School, Croydon

Among selective Central Schools the Heath Clark is but an infant. It was opened in January, 1929, and has accommodation for four hundred girls and boys.

The children, whose ages on entrance ranged from eleven to fourteen, came from many schools; and since their knowledge of history varied, a syllabus was made that would present as fresh a view-point as possible. It was planned to show the contact between European and English history.

Three class books were chosen, each with a different bias. One dealt mainly with social and economic affairs, another with political and constitutional, and the third with the European background to English history. The children soon found that the writers of the last series gave continual hints of "an I would, I could a tale unfold", which left them with an unsatisfied feeling. The little *Oliver Twists* in Form II made a list of ten topics from one chapter on which they wanted more. This gave an opportunity to teach them how to find the answers in other books, and they were introduced to the school reference library.

Soon after the school was opened the girls made a catalogue showing the title, author, and contents of each book. The syllabus was analysed into topics, and each topic formed a heading under which the names of books illustrating it were written. Thus the girls became familiar with the library and also prepared the means for further study.

But children may suffer from mental indigestion, or may become adepts in the "scissors and paste" method. A remedy for the first malady is to ask for accounts of chapters read in the child's own words, and only gradually to extend the scope of investigation. The second may be avoided if the pupils understand that teachers can distinguish between the phrases of a trained historian and their "native wood-notes wild".

In this school, written history work takes the form of illustrated notebooks, verses, plays or booklets. One girl of fourteen chose to study St. Francis, and produced a creditable essay after reading "The Little Flowers

of St. Francis", "The Legend of the Three Companions", a Life of St. Francis in "Saints and Heroes", and some of "The Little Plays of St. Francis". Another girl of thirteen wrote an essay on "Thomas More", obtaining her facts from "Tudor England", "The Household of Sir Thomas More", and "The Life of the Blessed Thomas More".

Instead of the ordinary history examination last term, Form V girls were given a month in which to prepare and write an essay on any subject in the syllabus; and it was amusing to see how quickly the class became a Co-operative Society for Mutual Aid.

Teachers know from experience that much is forgotten when school days end, but the ability to use books intelligently is a lasting possession.

E. M. HARRISON, Senior Mistress

II—The Use of Original Authorities

Morning Lane Elementary School, London

For the last five years I have been experimenting in order to discover whether children in an elementary school were capable of appreciating history as told by original authorities, and whether such treatment strengthened their liking for the subject.

The use of sources entails a good deal of extra work before one can find exactly the extract wanted, which then must be duplicated, and a question devised that will make the children think.

Some examples follow of extracts, and the questions set upon them.

1. Two brief extracts from the Poor Law Commission of 1832. *What was wrong with the old system of poor relief, and what did the Commission think should be done to improve matters?*

2. Extracts from the Bill of Attainder against Strafford. *Make a list of the accusations against Strafford.*

3. Extracts from the speeches of Elizabeth and James I on monopolies—the first gracefully avoiding, the second precipitating, further criticism. *Contrast the speeches.*

4. An extract from *The History of John Bull*, by J. Arbuthnot (1667–1735). *What countries were represented by John and Peg in the tale; what was told of the two countries; how did the Scots like the idea of union; what were the 'certain articles' on which Peg was taken into John's house?*

5. It is a good plan to use a piece of local history for illustrating a national event.

Thus for a Southwark school, I found a pamphlet telling of Charles II's progress to London and the encampment in St. George's Fields. The King's journey into the city led to the study of means of transport, the time taken, and the one and only bridge across the Thames.

The 16th century onwards provides a happy hunting-ground for the source enthusiast. Cheap collections abound of contemporary documents illustrating all aspects of life. The difficulty lies in choosing wisely. Sometimes an oral lesson is enlivened by reading an extract to the class, but I should not advise the use of documentary illustrations to any appreciable extent for children under the age of 11. After that age the extracts should be introduced gradually, and by the time the children reach the top class in an elementary school the best ones will be able to tackle a document intelligently and to find out something from it, as a piece of individual work.

By these methods children begin to realise that these folk of long ago were people of flesh and blood like themselves, and that history is something more than what they read in their history textbooks.

A. J. LOFVENGREN, Head Mistress

III—History Teaching through Observation *Junior Technical School, Rochester, Kent*

The Junior Technical School course covers a three-year period of post-primary education from the age of 12 to 13. The course is 'secondary' in character, but much time is devoted to purely technical subjects associated with engineering, building and artistic industries. The curriculum is not influenced by any outside examining body.

In the autumn term, 1928, a first-year form of 15 boys, specialising in artistic subjects, was selected for an experimental course in history, geography and science. These subjects were closely associated in a scheme of regional survey—a study of Rochester and its rural surroundings. The first year's work entailed a great deal of outdoor observation and individual enquiry into local conditions on the part of the pupils. In the second and third years the work in history and geography covered a wider field, but the aim was still to work on those aspects which have some significance in the life and experience of the pupils as future workers and citizens. The following examples may serve as illustrations.

In a simple "surface-utilisation" survey of the neighbourhood of Rochester pupils record by means of colour on 6 inch to 1 mile maps, the various ways in which the land is occupied (grass, cultivation, public open spaces, factories, houses, etc.), and a standard scheme for this type of survey has been adopted in Kentish schools. This scheme suggests the need for a series of subsequent special surveys of the same area.

In one case a special survey of housing types was undertaken. This was fully illustrated by maps, diagrams, pictures, etc., and led up to an investigation of population changes of the late 19th century, the growth of Chatham Dockyard, the development of civil administration, and many other subjects. The co-operation of the local librarian enabled the boys to carry out individual lines of enquiry and to prepare their work for presentation to the rest of the class.

A survey of industries and workplaces gave rise to the study of Rochester as a port, and of its contacts with distant parts of the world. Much useful information on ancient industries and changes effected by the industrial revolution was also collected.

One series of investigations led to the compilation of material for a time-chart showing a succession of local events and their connection with national affairs. This has not yet been completed. Outdoor observation, coupled with references to a varied literature, has enabled the new boys to build up a picture of the mediæval city of Rochester. Its various institutions are now being studied in some detail.

Last summer term a detailed study of the old manor of Luddesdown was undertaken. The work included geographical and scientific studies of the chalk uplands, their forests and agriculture, and the detailed examination of the Norman fabric of the manor-house. A whole day's field work at Luddesdown provided far more historical and scientific material than could adequately be dealt with. It is a source of satisfaction, however, in this as in other imperfect pieces of work, that the pupils acquire the right attitude towards the gaining of knowledge when books come second to the study of real things, and that they benefit enormously from the breaking down of academic barriers between the subjects of the school curriculum.

G. E. HUTCHINGS, Assistant Master

New Theories in Practice

*Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury,
England*

The historical work is designed for interest and training. The methods were first worked out by the present Headmaster at the Perse School, Cambridge, and were criticised as being impossible to carry out in the ordinary secondary school, but the results obtained have been in most cases fully equal to those obtained at the Perse. Moreover, these results have been obtained by a young history master, fresh from the university, the headmaster having deliberately refrained from teaching.

World history is taken in the first year, and forms a basis for later work. It is treated as a continuous story, an unfolding drama, the adventure of Man. The year's work is recorded by record charts made each week, summarising concretely the subject studied, and by time charts, one of which each boy makes during the year. Individual variation is encouraged. The art master co-operates by teaching first-year pupils a good simple lettering.

The next stage consists of two years of English history, with a marked European bias in the third year. An attempt is made to give a clear outline of the growth and development of the nation, as well as training in historical method. As much work as possible the boy does himself. He makes his own notebook on a basis of skeleton headings given as guides in choice of material. He writes eyewitness accounts, ballads, songs and short plays.

Lecturing by the boys is a regular part of the work. They choose their own subjects, which are fitted in at the appropriate time in the course, and are usually illustrated, while contemporary accounts or descriptive poems are often read to round off the work. With its boy chairman and markers and with its opportunities for questions and criticisms, this work has a special appeal. The history master has sometimes been delayed in arriving at a class, but he has never found any disorder where lectures were in progress. He has merely to take a back seat as quietly as possible.

The whole of the third term of the second

year is devoted to an elementary form of research. Boys work in groups, whenever possible unaided, on such subjects as costume, discoveries, the development of the ship, etc., and at the end of the term present their results in the form of development charts. Valuable training is thus received in the way to select material from books, the use of catalogues and indexes, and the arrangement of the matter collected.

Third year work is similar to second year, but rather more advanced. Attempts are made to study the causes and results of great movements and events, and lecture subjects are surveyed more widely. Harder essay work is attempted and the boys are encouraged to get away from textbooks. At this stage biographies seem to be the most suitable form of reading.

The fourth year is dominated by the school certificate. But with the introduction of a five years' course for all but the best boys, and the passing into higher forms of the younger boys, we hope to improve the character of the work. We hope also to try out a scheme of local history work with the rather duller boys who do not make much progress in ordinary historical studies.

Three times a week the whole of the Sixth forms, mathematical, science, modern studies and art, assemble under the headmaster for "Philosophy". This consists of a course of general world history in which anything under the sun is discussed. Each boy makes a set of notes on the course and once a term presents an essay on some topic, involving extra reading. Throughout the course short bibliographies are dictated so that if a boy wishes to pursue a subject further he may do so. Such a course awakens interest and increases culture.

A ROMAN GARRISON

A Roman garrison at dusk
With walls steadfast and tall;
One of the many lonely forts
That guard great Hadrian's Wall.

The tall, strong gates are fastened close,
For savage Picts are nigh;
But if that gate could open wide,
Strange sights would meet the eye.



Friends' School, Saffron Walden
JUVENILE SOCIETY FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE MIND, 1837



Friends' School, Saffron Walden
JUVENILE LITERARY SOCIETY
(Two scenes depicting the history of the school since its foundation in 1702)



The Holt School, Liverpool
JASON CLAIMS THE FLEECE



The Holt School, Liverpool
THE GUARDIAN OF THE FLEECE

(These illustrations are reprinted by kind permission of Messrs. Thos. Nelson & Sons Ltd. from
The Quest of the Golden Fleece)

In yonder room the General sits,
A tablet on his knee.
A large stylus is in his hand,
He writes industriously.

Anon, he pauses in his work,
His thoughts they go astray;
He thinks of sunny Italy,
And Romans far away.

Across the square come echoing
Deep tones, with accents gruff:
The soldiers at their dice and cards;
Fierce threats and jesting rough.

But now these sights and sounds are gone,
The centuries have rolled by;
The Roman fort is now no more
On those wild mountains high.

R. CHURCHILL (13)

H. C. ORAM, History Master

Bow Central School, London

Every teacher of history has certain aims in his mind which guide his choice of methods. If he wishes to create in the child an interest in the past; to show that the men of the ancient world did much for the men of to-day, and to help his pupils to appreciate the arts and crafts of past ages (and so to understand more fully those of the present), he must devise methods which will attain these aims.

Below is a brief account of the method (not yet fully developed) in use at Bow Central School. Oral lessons sometimes follow, sometimes precede, the children's reading on the subject. Selections from documents such as the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle and Froissart's Chronicle are read. The children are encouraged to borrow books from the school and public libraries and many of them make illustrations of weapons, buildings, costumes, etc., connected with the period which they are studying. Pictures illustrating objects of historical interest are obtained from the British and other Museums.

The study of the development of costume has aroused considerable interest, a number of historical costumes which can be worn by the children being made. A much more vivid impression is left on the child who has seen an actual costume than on one who has seen only a picture. A revision lesson on the Stuart Period can be made fascinating if different members of the class are dressed as Cavaliers and Puritans. They will be keen to contrast the costumes and to account

for differences, to name the leaders of the two parties, and to explain the cause of the Civil War.

Every class makes at least one visit to a place of historical interest during the year. The Roman occupation of Britain is made real to the child who has seen Samian pottery, wine vessels from Gaul and the remains of a Roman boat in the London Museum, and the Tudor Period becomes alive when he has seen oak from the Golden Hind in Middle Temple Hall. A visit to St. Albans and the site of Verulam will provide illustrations for every period of English history from the Roman occupation to the Reformation. After three or four months' study of the peoples of the Ancient East, a class is ready to visit the Egyptian, Assyrian and Greek rooms in the British Museum. During the visit each child has to answer certain questions, given previously, in his notebook. He will be interested in the Assyrian if he has to discover what were the Assyrian methods of warfare, how they disposed of their prisoners, and what animals they liked to hunt. Ur of the Chaldees will be a real place to the boy who has drawn the gold head-dress and daggers or the harp recently found in Mesopotamia.

O. V. JULYAN, History Mistress

Clayesmore School, Winchester

That great man and great historian, Dr. Creighton, Bishop of London, gave his blessing to the Clayesmore method of teaching history. For over 30 years we have taught history, and always French and English history side by side. The Bishop recognised that the teaching of history was difficult at school and that its value entirely depended on the grasp of the teacher. He recognised that examinations from textbooks are of no avail in themselves, and that the pupil must get a sound sense of social development before he understands history at all. And this can only be done by comparison.

At Clayesmore School we have taken French history as our comparison. It is singularly suitable to do so because the history of France introduces us to Spanish and Italian history, and the Empire and Holland in their most important aspects, and in a peculiar degree the relationship with and influence on the story of France. The story

of France, then, is peculiarly the story of the main events on the continent of Europe, and is rich in incident.

I remember the late Sir Clements Markham pointing out to me that this was the ideal of Sir John Fortescue, the chief tutor of young Edward of Lancaster in his exile: comparing the institutions and conditions of the peoples of France and England, the young Prince being just at the most interesting age between 12 and 16.

Apart from the information given and the interest that this method of teaching history arouses, it cannot fail to produce a deeper patriotism and love of country because based on no foundation of ignorance or foolish prejudices but upon knowledge and study of historical facts; it also carries with it more charity and a more generous sense of human companionship and the abandonment of foolish insularity. However much natural habit of mind and the force of tradition may tend to separate nation from nation, we may surely, if we have the grace and sense to seek it, find some common ground, some bond of comradeship. In the region of thought we may join hands in the ranks of the historian, philosopher, economist and poet; we may find a kindred spirit and such comradeship that is going to help us to be broader, wiser and more charitable; the recital of mutual struggles, fellow failures and mistakes, fellow glories and braveries, will not rob us of one ounce of loyalty or devotion to our home land. It will rather strengthen and deepen the ties that bind us to it and attach us more firmly and generously to those of other blood.

There is no more natural or effective study to which in these days boys should devote themselves than the study of human nature and character that we give them in history. Here we get a great opportunity as schoolmasters for the exercise of memory, of judgment, of imagination and of reason—all of deep educational value.

One thing we have to remember, and that is that the school curriculum is already overcrowded, and therefore our study of the history of France is preferable to that of the whole of the Continent. It is a country we can see from our own shores; its history is closely intertwined with our own and becomes a sound and practical proposition when added to our own general history work.

Finally, we must allude to the history pictures of the school. Over the course of many years we have accumulated an enormous stock of history pictures from all parts of the world—these amount to many thousands. We mount them on thick brown cardboard 20½ inches by 2 feet, and arrange them in history periods in the form rooms. We have all round the rooms wooden rails into which these pictures fit, and they are changed every term to suit the period we are taking. They prove interesting and helpful to the boy, showing portrayed the endless details which are dealt with in his lesson—military costume, social arrangements, domestic details—everything portrayed before his vision to help him.

We are naturally very willing to show what is being done at Clayesmore to anyone interested who by patient work can perfectly well adopt the same method in the ordinary school.

ALEXANDER DEVINE, Headmaster

Denstone College, England

There is a stage in the teaching of history when the pupil becomes weary of pictures and time charts, especially in Middle School forms where one cannot afford to spend too much time in rendering the subject palatable, and where it is necessary to prepare for the more serious study of a higher form working for school certificate or some equivalent examination.

This is the stage when time can be profitably devoted to an introduction to the study of original sources, for which there is so little room in the present scheme of public examinations. I have adopted this method with encouraging results, and as far as possible have tried to represent the work as real historical research. First, of course, it is necessary to ensure a sufficient basis of fact upon which to build, and this can usually be given in the ordinary routine of form work. The pupil should then be capable of appreciating and criticising original material placed before him. I find the best way of getting him to do this is to choose a subject about which all the form will know something, and to write upon the blackboard two or three extracts from original sources bearing upon the topic, taking care to select those which illustrate different points of view. The boys are then asked to

examine the passages, to write down to what they refer and their probable authorship, and to make comments upon any point of interest upon which the new material throws light. To simplify matters, it is of course useful to state the writers of the extracts, though if they are left to be deduced greater interest is aroused, even if the pupil can discover only what type of men they were, or to what political party they belonged.

Not only does work of this kind throw much interesting light upon actual historical events, but it also introduces the pupil to the methods of research and the way in which the material in his textbook was originally compiled. The master can show how history has developed and can dispel the illusion that it is a mere dull record of fact, while the boy can use his powers of deduction and criticism in building up parts of history for himself. At first his efforts will be very immature and the sources placed before him will not convey much, but with perseverance these difficulties can be overcome, and the time spent in doing so will not be regretted.

C. W. PROSSER, History Master

The Francis Parker School, Chicago, U.S.A.

Grave difficulties confront every earnest school in America in the matter of building up a sympathetic, unprejudiced attitude toward racial and international problems. One of these is the antagonism of the white population of the country towards the Negroes; and another is the deeply-rooted, inherited isolationist policy of the United States.

In this country, where the black race and the white are attempting to live under the same constitution, the racial antagonisms are increasing in number in almost direct ratio to the increase in population of the Negroes and their consequent dispersal throughout the country. The situation contains so many points of danger that no school can neglect to prepare its students, as far as possible, to meet it.

It may be that a sub-conscious attitude of white defence has been growing so steadily in the United States during the past two generations that it has influenced, unconsciously, the present attitude of a majority of people in the country towards international relations. That both problems—

the Negro and international relations—are more difficult to solve in America than in the Western European countries seems rather evident. It makes a history curriculum in American schools depart widely in content from that of European schools.

In the short space allotted to this article the Negro situation will be discussed as it has been worked out in the Francis W. Parker School.

The Eighth Grade is made up of boys and girls about thirteen and fourteen years of age. The emphasis in history is placed on the intellectual and emotional understanding of the problems confronting this country in the matter of its Constitution. Parliamentary government in Europe and presidential constitutional government in the United States form the main centres of interest.

The unit of work here defined as the 'Negro Problem' is studied by the boys and girls in the weeks preceding Lincoln's birthday. On that day they present their work in some form or other as a Morning Exercise, that the whole school may benefit by their study.

It is difficult for Europeans to envisage the position of the Negro in the United States. They are amazed at the combination of amused contempt with a certain evident hostility toward the blacks. In the south, where the Negro was so recently a slave, his former master likes him, and understands him, "so long as he knows his place"; the labouring whites hate him because his low standard of living keeps their wages low. In this atmosphere of scorn, fear, and hatred moves the black man—in his ears always the tales of lynchings, burnings, insensate murders, that flame out now and again, seizing victims almost at random.

This past year, after the children had studied the life of Lincoln and the progress of the slavery agitation, and had dramatised the exciting meetings of Congress at the great crises of 1820, 1850, and 1854, Vachel Lindsay's *Congo* was read to them. They enjoyed it almost too well. They seemed ready themselves "to beat an empty barrel with the handle of a broom". They "laughed down the witch-men" in the person of the reader. But there was no doubt that they associated the Negro they see on the streets with the tattooed cannibals of the Congo; that they understood, after

hearing the poem, his sense of barbaric rhythm, his gaiety, his superstition, his talent for the dance. Did they think that they would like to make some pictures? They swarmed to the art room, and some of the drawings are here reproduced.

Another day they had Negro poems by Langston Hughes and Countee Cullen, and were told about Harlem, the great Negro city in the heart of New York, the Mecca of the Negroes of the world. The music-master taught the boys some beautiful spirituals. They heard and read Negro folk-tales of animals, including of course, Uncle Remus, but also some others freer from the white man's touch. They heard the story of Toussaint Louverture. In short, the study was made an intellectual, aesthetic, emotional experience. On Lincoln's birthday the class gave a programme in the Morning Exercise, which their audience manifestly enjoyed and approved.

For almost any unit of work this would be the end. But in this case there was evidence that it endured.

Some weeks later a large chorus of Negro children of thirteen to sixteen years, from a school on the other side of the city, came to sing for us at a Morning Exercise. When they arrived the Eighth Grade was sent for to come down and make them welcome. Our boys and girls went down the stairs. There in the hall stood the big group of coloured children, boys and girls—poor, as Negroes mostly are, and uncertain of their ground in these unaccustomed surroundings. No one had given the Eighth Grade any suggestions. Virginia was ahead. She walked across the hall smiling, hooked her arm cordially under the arm of the first Negro girl, and led her off gaily to show her the school. Everyone followed her example as an entirely natural one. The Negro boys, after their singing, played basket-ball with our boys for an hour. The director wrote that they had never passed such a happy day.

Such a unit of work seems to have almost every element that should be looked for in selecting a direction for children's efforts; an emotional strengthening of intellectual work, an intellectual foundation for activity for others.

HAZEL CORNELL, Senior History
Mistress
IRENE CLEAVES, History Mistress

Frensham Heights School, Rowledge, Surrey

To the ever-recurring question "What is the use of history?" the harassed and perhaps disillusioned teacher must from time to time provide an answer, either to a prosaic and unimaginative child or, more often, to himself. The usual answers are too familiar to require repetition, but it may be helpful to notice three fundamental aspects of the subject. We may call them the aesthetic, the psychological or dramatic, and the scientific, and they should all appeal in varying degrees to children of different temperaments and different ages.

The aesthetic aspect is the pictorial side of the subject. Many minds habitually think in pictures and history always makes a particular appeal to the artistic sense, which cannot bear to see anything 'out of period'. A mind of this kind will unconsciously acquire more idea of the seventeenth century from a minuet of Lully or Mr. Shepherd's illustrations to Pepys' diary than from a thorough study of the Clarendon Code or the Dutch Wars. To this type of mind, too, periods like the age of Pericles, the fifteenth century, the Renaissance, and the age of Elizabeth will make the strongest appeal.

The psychological or dramatic aspect is the most obvious and popular of all. Here the mind delights in the mere sequence of the story. It laps up biographies and accounts of campaigns to see what is going to happen to the hero or whether the expected or the unexpected side will win. Hence the perennial fondness for battle, murder, and sudden death so much deplored by the enlightened, but so natural and probably healthy to a certain age of development.

The scientific aspect is far the most educational, for here history is a study in the laws of cause and effect. It should, like philosophy, teach us "to see life steadily and see it whole". A sense of proportion and a capacity to weigh evidence and draw comparisons are, or should be, among the most valuable products of a training in history. We no longer look to history to point moral lessons or to "justify the ways of God to man", but there is one lesson which history irresistibly enforces, the lesson of possibilities.

There is little point in studying the past unless it is to be an inspiration for the future.

History is only the prelude to the present, the true bible of the communal conscience. To-day, with the means that science has placed at our disposal—the press, schools, travel, and the wireless—we could change the whole outlook of the world in two generations, provided only that the will were there. Of this the Naval Conference, the League of Nations, the wave of war books, are only the symptoms. The true historian will neither lament the past nor brood on an unattainable future; he will find the same characters, the same problems, the same solutions in his everyday environment. To those oppressed by the determinism of Dean Inge and Spengler we commend Shakespeare's sonnet, "When in the chronicle of wasted time".

J. V. COOPER, History Master

The Garden School, Buckinghamshire, England

One evening a week during the autumn and spring terms is devoted to a study of current events, when the activities of the League of Nations claim a considerable share of the time. The school is a Junior Branch of the L.N.U. and its members speak from time to time on the work of the League.

In preparation for the General Election in 1929 we ran a Politics Club, and a Politics Room had its four corners dedicated respectively to Conservative, Liberal, Labour and Non-Party literature and posters. The parties held their meetings in the Politics Room and exhibited much interest and ignorance. Ignorance grew less and interest more as the Election drew near and the school attended three local meetings, Conservative, Liberal, Labour. On the day of the General Election the school held one, with the same result as in the real one, though our Liberal minority was stronger.

A mimic Council Meeting of the League was held on Empire Day, 1929, fourteen senior pupils representing the five permanent and nine non-permanent members. The subjects on the agenda were chosen from those actually dealt with by the League, and included disarmament, international health reforms, alcoholism, slavery, the eight-hours day, the construction of the Council, and China's request for a permanent or semi-permanent place on the Council.

In the study of the growth and development of art an attempt is made to link up its story with universal history. We start this course with an explanation of the nebular theory of the formation of the solar system, and an account of the gradual appearance on earth of the various forms of plant and animal life. This is followed by accounts of the discovery, in different parts of the world, of remains of primitive man and of relics of palæolithic life and art in the ancient cave-dwellings. The whole story is told as far as possible pictorially.

L. W. NICHOLLS, Principal

The Holt School, Liverpool, England

At the preparatory stage of secondary school work a centre of interest such as a Tournament would cause the following sort of general topics to be put to a class:

1. What was a Tournament? 2. Who took part? 3. Why did kings encourage them? 4. Describe one. 5. Why are there none nowadays?

Illustrations are available from the *Children's Encyclopædia*, *Pictorial Education*, and various books on history and literature. *Ivanhoe* is brought by someone who has marked the chapter describing the tournament. Practical measurement is encouraged by the pupils making a portion of the boundary fence and cutting and stringing coloured flags for bunting. The royal box, grand stands and combatants' tents become individual exercises and the whole model (of which a photograph is shown) is set up on a large table. Additional scope for ingenuity is afforded by a fair-ground which is outside the lists, with refreshment tents, pavilions of various sizes and shapes, smith's forge, armoury, target for archery, amusements, etc. My colleague who tried this experiment claims that the lesson succeeded in (1) enabling children to take an intelligent interest in the history, manners, customs, dress of the Middle Ages; (2) furthering appreciation of King Arthur stories; (3) directing thoughts towards high ideals in conduct, i.e. rules of chivalry; (4) stimulating the imagination and helping to increase vocabulary; (5) linking up lessons in history, literature, practical measurement and handwork; (6) providing an opportunity for the development of individual work with

team work; (7) encouraging skill and care in execution and planning, and in giving delight as well as scope for ingenuity.

At the other end of the school course, creative work shows itself mainly in preparing and writing longer essays. A *topic syllabus* for matriculation helps to break the slavish use of textbooks, since pupils have to search through various books for a coherent account of the topic under discussion.

The Joint Matriculation Board accept such a scheme as this:

A. *English History*. 1714–1902. 1. Agricultural and Industrial Revolutions. 2. Parliamentary Reform—including Chartism. 3. Social Reform—factory, prison, etc., legislation and alterations in Poor Law. 4. Trade Unionism—rise and development; also of Co-operation. 5. Changes in and development of fiscal system. 6. Education. 7. Material progress during the prescribed period.

B. *Colonial*. 1714–1902. 1. Outlines of history of (a) India; (b) British Dominions. 2. Constitutional development from War of Independence to Union of South Africa. 3. Modern Empire problems in outline.

C. *European History*. 1789–1904.

It is when we come to the sixth form work that we really begin again to approach the Dalton Plan. Here is an outline of books used by a pupil for an essay on the Foreign Policy of France, 1789–1797: Cambridge Modern History; Cambridge History of British Foreign Policy; French Revolution (Madelin), (Carlyle), (Kropotkin); Napoleon (Ludwig); Revolutionary Europe (Morse Stephens); Mirabeau (Wilbert); Danton (Madelin); Decisive Wars of History (Liddel-Hart); Diplomacy of Napoleon (Mowat); Lectures on the French Revolution (Acton); William Pitt (Holland Rose); Europe in Nineteenth Century (Grant and Temperley); The Partition of Poland (Eversley).

Work on these lines enables the pupil to make general summaries of historical studies, such as the following paragraph in an essay recently submitted:

“France was now at war with the chief powers of Europe and by this time it had become almost impossible to decide whether it was a war of aggression or of liberty. The French conquest of Belgium and the ensuing trial of Louis XVI produced an artificial excitement, a flamboyant patriotism, and eager competition between Jacobin and

Girondin each to outdo the other, which infused a dash of the old Chauvinism into the fanaticism of the new age. The heady mixture was not the true wine of the Revolution. Although yet it is impossible to tell whether Chauvinism or fanaticism preponderates, nevertheless the Chauvinism is becoming increasingly stronger; soon only the merest taste of fanaticism will endure to remind one of the finer spirit of '89.”

An interesting project is that of decorating school ‘Houses’. The Holt School made an excellent set of Houses out of notable cities of Greek times—Athens, Sparta, Corinth and Troy, and decorated the House rooms with modern reconstruction painted in sepia on the plaster walls. Pupils and ex-pupils hunted up and designed scenes in which the cities were the central features. They reconstructed Corinth to show the ‘wine-dark sea’ on each side, and the supposed pathway of the ships dragged from one side of the Isthmus to the other. After ten years’ use these pictures began to fade and peel off the walls, and the younger generation provided, instead, coloured reproductions of the four cities. One of these is given as the frontispiece in this issue of the *New Era*.

C. H. BAILEY, Headmaster

Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York City

To share the great heritage of mankind, to gain understanding and appreciation of the past, to trace significant developments which lie behind the problems of modern life—it is infinitely easier to state philosophies than to prove their practicable application in actual teaching of boys and girls. After all, appreciation of the evolution of culture comes with intimate acquaintance with certain cultural achievements. To see the gifts of all men to civilisation requires usually travel and widely varied human contacts, as well as most intelligent study of books and museums. Few of us even gain much from travel, unless we meet people of our own mental attitudes or cultural appreciation.

With such reasoning in the background, each student in our world history classes is invited to pause at each epoch-making period of man’s conquest of civilisation long enough to share that aspect of the life naturally

attractive or interesting to him, if by some magic carpet he might be taken to that period and people. The beauty-loving child seeks the artists and architects or their achievements. The boy who considers nothing interesting but science spends his time with those from whose fertile minds grew the beginnings of the epoch-making discoveries and inventions. The girl to whom social relationships are all-absorbing may find fascinating the customs and traditions of everyday life. As a group they have travelled together to the heart of the civilisation which they are now visiting; as individuals they choose freely the objects and course of their own further adventuring, with one requirement only: that they bring to the others some proof of its importance or fascination, proof through glimpses of great personalities and intellects, through graphic representations of places and people, and objects of art or inventions.

Source books, museums, biographies must be searched, for secondary information is very critically received. A thoughtful and clever form of report must be worked out if value or charm is to be proved. A symbolic sketch will prove the point here, or a cartoon will make the meaning clear there; a photograph will illustrate that geographical setting, but there must be a sketch of the details of this column or frieze if its full beauty is to be realised. Maps of seas without ships and harbours, of cities without characteristic buildings, of trade routes without the traders and their treasure, are meaningless. A tale of Hatshepsut is incomplete without some portraits and decorative borders revealing the richness of life under her peace policy. The relics from which scholarly excavators piece together the thrilling story of the past must be shown, whether by clever copying or tireless search for clippings. Precious books and coins and prints and etchings are begged from home or friends' collections and exhibited, as the boy who cannot write proves he can speak. The height of the civilisation of the Incas, the 'Glory That Was Greece', the decline of Roman civilisation—all have pulsingly human meanings.

"Why, Abraham Lincoln couldn't have said anything more to the point on slavery than Aristophanes did in that play I found last night." "There must be some place I can find how Joseph II was educated, or

at least what books he read when he was a boy. I must know how he started thinking of social reforms in Austria generations ahead of his time." "I never tried to draw before, but I had to show you how this building was possible with no modern machinery." "A printed placard to identify the world history bulletin board? Why, that must not be printed; that must be living figures, the world passing by from the past to the present."

And it is, though we have had no opportunity as yet to photograph it. It stands with these bits from reports and notebooks as proof of at least a beginning of understanding and appreciation of other times and peoples.

ELMINA R. LUCKE, History Mistress
in the Senior High School

*North Shore Country Day School, Winnetka,
U.S.A.*

History in the Junior High School is a subject for teacher and pupils to study together. The subject covers so long a period of time, the details are so numerous, that we can touch the high spots only, hoping always that someone may be stirred or tempted to go deeper into the mysterious depths.

Wars as wars we do not dwell upon; the causes of wars and their results, as the scenery and the actors are changed, we try to adjust to the great drama of living. How man, in his struggle for food, battles with nature; how he battles against barbarism and ignorance; then, with the increase of population, how he struggles against class distinction and against poverty; and, on rare occasions, how some pioneer blazes a trail for spiritual adventure. Then we try to turn it upon ourselves, as explorers or pioneers, getting amusement or joy out of the past's amusements, art, architecture, philosophy and politics.

One seventh grade boy made a papier mâché picture of the Mediterranean Region from which man made his slow march westward; another, in the eighth grade, presented the United States as he thought the early settlers saw it, with its impassible mountains and formidable rivers and lakes. The pupils are always fascinated by the way man has met and solved the problems

geography has set for him, and how these problems have stimulated his inventive powers to turn a lonely wilderness into a wonderful homeland.

Do these young people see that only by struggle man is liberated?—that a society of refinement and protection offers no opportunity for struggle? Perhaps.

JOSEPH RIDDLE, History Instructor

*Rosemary Junior School, Greenwich,
Conn., U.S.A.*

In the Rosemary Junior School the first glimpse that the children have of a "past" is in making a map of Greenwich, Connecticut, in the present. They trace brooks from their source. They visit and sail round the harbour. They follow out the Boston Post Road as an artery of traffic between New York and Boston, trace streets and roads that lead to their homes or to the centre of the village, investigate the stations and railroads, and study the economics of the community.

The Boston Post Road tells its own tale. Architecture, names of streets and geographical points all bespeak a period of the not-so-long-ago in America. A geological survey sends the children into a far distant and remote past to explain conditions of to-day.

At the age of nine the children undertake detailed study of the not-so-long-ago Colonial life, in which they act the part, in their own classroom, of early settlers, experimenting with spinning, dyeing and weaving textiles, moulding candles, making soap, and cooking Colonial foods. They decorate their walls with paintings that suggest an early American setting, embroider samplers, and make horn-books to show how Colonial children studied.

The ten-year-old group studies the history of the book, each making books by hand—tracing developments from mediæval manuscripts and parchment and paper-making to the modern production of great quantities of printed matter from huge presses and machines. This is followed by a visit to a publishing plant to study the processes of to-day. Historically, the life of the mediæval times in which the manuscript was produced is lived out in investigation and activity and drama. History, through such

experiences, widens until, at the age of twelve when the children leave the school, they have had an active working at history that relates present-day American life to deep roots in the past.

It is not the period or the particular content that matters so much as the type of the activities implied for the child. That he should be the investigator is the most important.

Then follows the expression in art forms. The children either paint imaginary scenes, or model figures in clay, create a play in which they themselves become the characters, or write in some form stories or scenes of the period.

The process of studying is the most important phase of the study. History must be taught so that it gives the child the tool of study, the means of approach, the power to investigate a question. Where much data is collected, organization of facts must necessarily be developed and tentative conclusions held. The attitude of investigation and intelligent criticism is almost the first of the social attitudes as well as the finest tool for study that an individual attains.

I once asked a class to write their opinion of their favourite study and what they had learned from it. One twelve-year-old girl wrote: "I like history because it is so interesting and colourful. It makes you think how very old the world is and how brave some people have been. Of course, the wicked people make history awfully interesting, too." Another child wrote: "I think I have learned how to go to books and get what I want from them, and I think history has taught me about what people have done before me and how the world has slowly mounted the ladder to what it is now—the modern world. In other words, I think I have gained from history a knowledge of the world's growing."

ELLEN W. STEELE, History Mistress

The Victoria High School, B.C., Canada

In commemoration of the Tenth Anniversary of the founding of the League of Nations, the Modern History Club of this school presented a Model Assembly of the League of Nations based upon the proceedings of the Tenth Assembly. The perform-

ance, which was staged in the school gymnasium, was the outcome of a tremendous amount of work by pupils and teachers over a period of more than two months. Fifty-four countries were represented by delegations, over two hundred and fifty students taking part, in all. Outstanding speeches of the Tenth Assembly were given, either in part or in entirety. Notable among these were the great speech of Dr. Stresemann; M. Briand's appeal for the consideration of a United States of Europe; the report of Dr. Nansen's secretary on the work among refugees, and Mr. Ramsay Macdonald's great speech introducing the idea of disarmament and Britain's willingness to take her risks in peace. One of the outstanding features of the evening was the signing of

the Optional Clause binding the signatories to acceptance of the World Court of International Justice. In this, as elsewhere, chairmen of the delegations in many instances spoke in the language of their country, their remarks being translated by interpreters. The use of these foreign languages was one of the most attractive and educative features of the whole performance. Students spoke in German, French and Italian, Greek, Finnish, Chinese, Japanese, Norwegian and Hindustani. In each case the student speaking was of the nationality indicated by his language. The performance, which was given on 14 and 15 February, was greeted by the public as one of the very greatest educative ventures undertaken in Victoria.

I. DILWORTH, Principal

Aids to History Teaching and International Understanding

I.—SOCIETIES AND ORGANISATIONS

(The following lists name a few of many organisations working—principally with youth—towards International Understanding. The *New Era* asks that the names and headquarters addresses of others be supplied by readers, in order to have on file as complete lists as possible. The Magazine being published in England, the number of Associations listed under London is inevitably large. In certain cases the main central address has been given; in others it has been deemed advisable to give national headquarters).

EUROPE

AUSTRIA

International Fellowship of Reconciliation—Döblergasse 2/26, Vienna VII.

Austrian Junior Red Cross—Stubenring 1, Vienna I.

BELGIUM

International Federation of Students—22 Place de Brouckère, Brussels.

Confédération Internationale des Etudiants—82 Avenue Molière, Brussels.

Union of International Associations—Palais Mondial, Brussels.

International Federation of League of Nations Society—1 Avenue de la Toison d'Or, Brussels.

DENMARK

International People's College—Elsinore.

FRANCE

Junior Red Cross Society—League of Red Cross Societies, 2 Avenue Velasquez, Paris VIII.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Division of Intercourse and Education—173 Boulevard St. Germain, Paris VI.

Co-ordinating Committee of Major International Associations—2 rue de Montpensier, Paris I.

International Bureau of National Associations or Federations of Members of the Staff of Public Secondary Schools—2 rue de Montpensier, Paris I.

World Alliance Prompting International Friendship through the Churches—3 rue Desrenaudes, Paris.

International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation—rue de Montpensier, Paris XI.

Association Universitaire pour la Société des Nations—Paris.

Comité d'Echanges interscolaires franco-allemand—10 rue de l'Elysee, Paris.

Groupe d'Etudes internationales—166 Boulevard Montparnasse, Paris.

Comité International d'action démocratique pour la Paix—34 Boulevard Raspail, Paris.

Le Trait d'Union—147 Boulevard St. Germain, Paris VI.

Office de la Correspondance scolaire internationale—41 rue Gay Lussac, Paris V.

Union féminine pour la S.D.N.—24 rue Pierre Curie, Paris.

La Paix par le Droit—M. Prudhommeaux, rue Jacques Boyceaux, Versailles, S. et O.

GERMANY

World Alliance Promoting International Friendship through the Churches—Fruchtstrasse 64/11, Berlin, O.17.

Zentralinstitut für Erziehung und Unterricht—Potsdamerstrasse 120, Berlin, W.35.

ITALY

International Educational Cinematographic Institute—Villa Torlonia, la Via Lazzaro Spallanzani, Rome.

LONDON AND ENGLAND

American University Union in Europe—50 Russell Square, W.C. 1.
 American Women's Club, Ltd.—46 Grosvenor Street, London, W. 1.
 Anglo-Austrian Committee for the Interchange of Students and Teachers—29 Gordon Square, W.C. 1.
 Anglo-Belgian Union—35 Albemarle Street, London, W. 1.
 Anglo-Danish Students Bureau—50 Russell Square, London, W.C. 1.
 Anglo-German Academic Bureau—58 Gordon Square, London, W.C. 1.
 Anglo-Spanish Society—Miss Perry, c/o Spanish Embassy, 24 Belgrave Square, W. 1.
 Anglo-Swedish Society—10 Staple Inn, W.C. 1.
 British Federation of Youth—Youth House, 260 Camden Road, N.W. 1.
 British Federation of University Women—Crosby Hall, Cheyne Walk, S.W. 3.
 British Red Cross Society—19 Berkeley Street, W. 1.
 British Italian League—74 Grosvenor Street, W. 1.
 Boy Scouts International Bureau—5 Buckingham Palace Road, S.W. 1.
 Czech Society of Great Britain—14 Queensberry Place, S.W. 7.
 Canada House—Trafalgar Square, S.W. 1.
 Egyptian Club—71 Baker Street, W. 1.
 Fellowship of Reconciliation—17 Red Lion Square, W.C. 1.
 English Speaking Union—Dartmouth House, 37, Charles Street, W. 1.
 Girls' Friendly Society—Townsend House, Greycoat Place, S.W. 1.
 Goethe Society—Miss Oswald, c/o Anglo-German Academic Bureau, 58 Gordon Square, W.C. 1.
 Honourable Company of Friendly Adventurers—The Friend Ship, Charing Cross Pier, S.W. 1.
 Inter-University Jewish Federation—21 Glover Street, Leeds.
 International Federation of University Women—Crosby Hall, Cheyne Walk, S.W. 1.
 International Council of Women—117 Victoria Street, S.W. 1.
 International Hostels, Ltd.—19, Sydenham Hill, S.E. 26.
 Lyceum Club—138 Piccadilly, W. 1.
 La Société de Liaison—Rolleston, Essex Rd., Watford.
 League of Nations Union—15 Grosvenor Crescent, S.W. 1.
 League of the Empire—24 Belgrave Road, S.W. 1.
 Office Internationale des Universités et Ecoles français—3 Cromwell Gardens, S.W. 7.
 Royal Empire Society—18 Northumberland Avenue, W.C. 2.
 Society of Friends Service Council—Friends' House, Euston Road, N.W. 1.
 Save the Children Fund—26 Gordon Street, W.C. 1.
 South African Students' Club—8 Granville Place, W. 1.
 Universities Bureau of the British Empire—50 Russell Square, London, W.C. 1.
 United Assns. of Great Britain and France—16 Hanover Square, London, W. 1.
 Victoria League—81 Cromwell Road, London, S.W. 7.
 Workers' Educational Assn.—16 Harpur Street, London, W.C. 1.
 World Y.W.C.A.—13 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W. 1.
 World Bureau for Girl Guides and Girl Scouts—112 Beaufort Street, Chelsea, London, S.W. 3.
 World Assn. for Adult Education—16 Russell Square, London, W.C. 1.
 World Alliance Promoting International Friendship through the Churches—41 Parliament Street, London, S.W. 1.
 Delegacy for Oriental Students—Oxford, England.

School Journey Assn.—35 Park View Road, Addiscombe, Croydon, Surrey, England.

Wireless Message of the Children of Wales—Welsh League of Nations Society, Cardiff, South Wales.

IRISH FREE STATE.

Dublin Overseas Fellowship—Pembroke House, Blackrock, Co. Dublin.

SWITZERLAND

Union International de Secours aux Enfants—31 Quay du Mont Blanc, Geneva.
 Bureau International d'Education—44 rue des Marâichers, Geneva.
 League of Nations Union (Junior Branches)—Geneva.
 International Federation of Societies for the League of Nations—Geneva.
 International Student Service—13 rue Calvin, Geneva.
 Les Chevaliers de la Paix—La Bocardbri, Calangin-sur-Neuchâtel.
 International Red Cross Committee—Geneva.
 International Council of Women—16 Chemin Dumas, Geneva.
 Union Mondiale de la Femme pour la Concorde—17 Boulevard Helvétique, Geneva.
 Fellowship of Reconciliation—11 Pré du Marché, Lausanne.
 Federation of Youth for Peace (Weltjugendliga)—Elfenaugässchen 18, Berne.
 Association Suisse pour la S.D.N., Section d'Education—20 Tillierstrasse, Berne.
 Pax Romana, International Secretariat of Catholic Students' Assn—c/o Prof. T. Gremand, Collège St. Michel, Fribourg.
 World's Student Christian Federation—13 rue Calvin, Geneva.
 Rotary International—2 Pelikanerstrasse, Zurich.
 World's Alliance of Y.M.C.A.—3 rue Général Dufour, Geneva.
 European Christian Endeavour Union—Salle Centrale, 10 Place de la Madelene, Geneva.
 International Migration Service—10 rue de la Bourse, Geneva.
 International Peace Bureau—8 rue Charles Bonnet, Geneva.
 Women's International League of Peace and Freedom—Maison Internationale, 12 rue du Vieux-Collège, Geneva.

UNITED STATES

World Friendship among Children—289 Fourth Avenue, New York City.
 Friendly Relations Club—c/o Francis Parker School, Chicago, Ill.
 The Open Road—20 West 43rd Street, Room 2370, Salmon Towers, New York City.
 World Friendship Committee—Los Angeles City School District, Manual Arts High School, 4131 S. Vermont Avenue, Los Angeles, Cal.
 Pan-Pacific Union—Honolulu, Hawaii.
 Pre-School World Fellowship League Inc—Mrs. Laura Shepherd, National Corresponding Secretary, Calexico, Cal. (10 cents. for particulars).
 Rotary International—211 West Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.
 School World Friendship League Inc.—Mrs. Laura Shepherd, as above.
 World Alliance Promoting International Friendship through the Churches—70 Fifth Avenue, New York City.
 World Federation of Education Associations—Office of State Commissioner of Education, Augusta, Maine.
 Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Division of Intercourse and Education—405 West 117th Street, New York City.

II.—LONDON MUSEUMS

(As well as public lectures, special free tours under a special guide may be arranged for school parties at these Museums. Schools should write for particulars of facilities. Will readers please send particulars or names of museums in other countries providing special facilities for international study.)

- The British Museum—The Director, Great Russell Street, London, W.C. 1.
 The Imperial Institute—The Director, South Kensington, London, S.W. 7.
 The Victoria and Albert Museum (National Museum of Industrial Art)—The Director, South Kensington, London, S.W. 7.
 The Tower of London—The Resident Governor, King's House, London, E.C. 3.
 The London Museum—The Director, Lancaster House, St. James's, London, S.W. 1.

III.—BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND PUBLICATIONS DEALING WITH INTERNATIONALISM

- World Friendship*—Los Angeles City School District, Cal. (Comprehensive bibliography included), 1928.
Teachers and World Peace—League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W. 1. (Bibliography of League and allied subjects publications included). Price 6d. Smaller book, same title, price 3d. from L.N.U. Welsh National Council, Cardiff, S. Wales.
The League in the Schools of the World—League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, as above. Supplement to *Teachers and World Peace*. Price 4d.
Children's Books and International Goodwill—Report and list of books. (In French and English.) Bureau International d'Education, 44 rue des Maraichers, Geneva. Fr. 3.00, postage extra.
The Children's Newspaper—John Carpenter House, Whitefriars, London, E.C. 4. Annual subscription, 11s.
A Directory of Societies and Organizations in Great Britain, Concerned with the Study of International Affairs—British Co-ordinating Committee for International Studies, 10 St. James's Square, London, S.W. 1. Price 1/6.
A Handbook for History Teachers—Methuen and Co., 36, Essex Street, London, W.C. 1. (Most comprehensive bibliography for history teachers, especially for use in elementary schools). Price 3/6.
Books Children Like Best—By J. L. Jones and E. T. Owen. The Welsh Outlook Press, Newtown, Montgomeryshire. Price 6d. (A suggested book list in a world-wide reading scheme, based on children's choice of books).
Llyfrau Cymraeg i Ysgolion Elfennol—Arranged by D. J. Williams. J. R. Jones, Llys Adysg, Trawsfynydd, Wales. (A very valuable list of Welsh books for Welsh teachers).
School Journey Record—Yearly Publication. School Journey Assn., H. W. Barter, 35 Park View Road, Addiscombe, Croydon, Surrey. 2/6 to non-members of Assn.; members free; extra copies 1/-. (Interesting account of journeys, homeland and continental, with lists of schools participating).
B.B.C. Talks and Lectures—British Broadcasting Corporation, Savoy Hill, London, W.C. 2. Price

2d. (Summaries of talks by well-known workers towards international co-operation; lists of books and periodicals).

- Reports on the Teaching of History, English, Geography, etc.*—Education Committee, City of Bradford, England. Price 1/6. (Includes extensive bibliographies of History).
The Curriculum of the Modern School—Education Committee, City of Bradford, England. Price 1/6. (Includes extensive bibliographies of History).
On Training in Citizenship—Office of the British Association, Burlington House, Piccadilly, London, W. 1. B.A. Reprint No. 11. Price 6d. (Extensive bibliography).
Quarterly Bulletins of Information on the work of International Organizations—Publications Dept., League of Nations, Geneva.
Educational Survey—Published by the Secretariat of the League of Nations, Geneva. Half-yearly. Single number. 2/- or 50 cents.
Handbook of International Organizations (Assns., Bureaux, Committees, etc.)—Publications Dept., League of Nations, Geneva, 1923, 1925, 1926, 4/- or \$1.00. 1929, 10/- or \$2.50.

IV.—MISCELLANEOUS

POSTERS AND POSTER REPRODUCTIONS

Beautiful coloured reproductions of posters, by eminent artists, of places and subjects of historical interest may be obtained from:—

- Great Western Railway—Advertising Department, 20 Eastbourne Terrace, London, W. 2. 25 x 40, 1/6; 50 x 40, 2/6; each, post free. (Particulars and lists on application).
 London, Midland and Scottish Railway — Divisional Passenger Commercial Superintendent, Euston Station, London, N.W. 1. 40 x 25, 2/6; 40 x 50, 5/-; each, post free. (Particulars and lists on application).
 London and North Eastern Railway—Advertising Manager, 26 Pancras Road, London, N.W. 1. 25 x 40, 1/9; 50 x 40, 3/-; each, post free. Particulars and lists on application).
 Southern Railway—General Manager, Advertising Dept., Waterloo Station, London, S.E. 1. 25 x 40, 2/6; 50 x 40, 5/-; each, post free. (Particulars and lists on application).
 Empire Marketing Board—2, Queen Anne's Gate Buildings, Dartmouth Street, London, S.W. 1. Prices range down from 3/6 each, 60 x 40. Schools should write for list of these particularly decorative and instructive posters and poster reproductions, and application form for free issue.
 Canadian National Railways—Advertising Dept., 17 Cockspur Street, London, S.W. 1. Particulars on application. Posters supplied free. Size 25 x 40.
 Canadian Pacific Railway Co.—Advertising Dept., 62 Charing Cross, S.W. 1. Particulars on application. Posters supplied free. Size 25 x 40.
 Swiss Federal Railway—Publicity Dept., Berne, Switzerland Particulars on application, for free issue.

PICTURE POSTCARDS, COLOURED AND SEPIA PRINTS, GUIDE BOOKS, DESCRIPTIVE LEAFLETS, CATALOGUES, ETC.

Museums listed under II.—Particulars and lists from the Secretary. The Imperial Institute has series of postcards for most countries within the British Empire; also small samples of various Empire products at 1d. each.

The Medici Society—7 Grafton Street, London, W.1.
Particulars of series on application.
Society of Friends Peace Committee—Friends' House,
Euston Road, London, N.W.1. Copies of E.
Canziani's tempera paintings, "The Babe of
Peace" and "Peace Leading International
Labour". Price 3/6 coloured, poster size. E.
Canziani is the painter of "The Piper of
Dreams".

Education Outlook—23, Southampton Street, Blooms-
bury Square, London, W.C.1. Set of 8 delightful
coloured sketches of Historical Costume by Mrs.
Marjorie Quennell. Price, 2/6 the set. Size, 10½
x 8.

The World Hero Calendar Dept.—532 Seventeenth
Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., U.S.A. Portraits
of 12 heroic figures chosen by students from
schools of more than 30 countries, mounted on
cards, with descriptive captions. Size, 10 x 15.

INTERNATIONAL NOTES

The International Moral Education Congress

will be held at the Sorbonne, 23 to 28 September,
1930. Among the themes of the Congress will be
(1) History teaching as an aid to moral education;
(2) Discipline and autonomy in moral education;
(3) Varieties of method in moral education. Secretary,
Mr. F. J. Gould, Amorel, Woodfield Avenue, Ealing,
London, W.5.

The Prague Summer School

will be held from 21 to 30 July at Prague and
from 2 to 10 August at Carlsbad. The aim of these
courses, both of which have the same programme
of lectures, is to give an outline of Central European
(particularly Czecho-Slovak) civilisation for those
English-speaking travellers who wish to gain a clear
knowledge of the actual civilisation of Central
Europe. Information from the Czech Society of Gt.
Britain, 14, Queensberry Place, London, S.W.7,
and from the Director, Institute of Czecho-Slovak
Studies, Columbia University, New York City.

Educational Study-Weeks in Germany

will be held in June, July and August in various
towns in Germany for the special benefit of
foreigners. Each week deals with a special subject,
such as Hygiene and the School, Speech Training,
Methods. Information from the Zentralinstitut für
Erziehung und Unterricht, Potsdamerstr. 120,
Berlin, W. 35.

The Hellerau-Laxenburg School, nr. Vienna,

will hold three courses, during June, July and
August, in Rhythmical and Musical Education and
in Physical Education and Dance. There will also
be a special course in English in July. Information
from the Hellerau-Laxenburg School, Laxenburg,
nr. Vienna, or from the Institute of International
Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York City.

The Austro-American Institute of Education

will hold its summer school from 1 July to 15
August at Vienna. Information from the Austro-
American Institute, Elisabethstr. 9, Vienna I.

The B.I.E. Summer School

will be held for the third time at the end of
July and beginning of August, in Geneva. This
course is designed to make known in the scholastic
profession the League of Nations, and to develop the
spirit of international co-operation. All particulars
may be had from the B.I.E., 44 rue des Maraichers,
Geneva.

Summer Conference in Yugo-Slavia

A conference on modern psychology and the new
education will probably be arranged in Yugo-Slavia
this summer. The conference will be arranged by
the Teachers' Association of Yugo-Slavia in co-
operation with colleagues in Czecho-Slovakia.
Further particulars from Dr. Jan Uher, Rudisova 6,
Brno (Masarykova ctvrt), Czecho-Slovakia.

Conference in Holland

The Fellowship's Section in Holland is planning
to hold a conference on new education early in the
summer. Further particulars from Mr. J. N. Bolt,
Schaepmanlaan 11, Amersfoort.

Education and the Films

A Commission of Enquiry and Recommendation in
connection with Educational and Cultural films has
been established in London with Sir Benjamin Gott
as chairman. Among the objects of the Commission
are (1) to consider suggestions for improving and
extending the use of films for educational and cul-
tural purposes; (2) to consider whether it is desirable
to establish a permanent central organisation to
further the objects of the Commission. Five research
committees have been appointed, among which are
a committee on Adult Education, Convener, Mr.
J. W. Brown, Secretary to the British Institute of
Adult Education; and a committee on Schools and
Adolescents, Convener, Sir Benjamin Gott. The
temporary offices of the Commission on Educational
and Cultural Films are at 39 Bedford Square,
London, W.C.1.

The Children's Clinic

exists to promote the mental and physical welfare
of nervous and delinquent children, especially those
resident in West London, and to study the conditions
giving rise to nervousness and delinquency in child-
hood. In the Children's Room, under the super-
vision of doctors trained in psychology and lay
workers, play material is used which is specially
chosen to bring to light the children's difficulties.
In the Mothers' Room, the parents form a club and
discuss questions such as "Should children go to the
pictures?" "What time should children go to bed?"
etc. There is also a special Parents' Department
for the treatment of parents, for it is often the
nervous condition of the parents that is the source
of the children's difficulties. Dr. Margaret Lowen-
feld is Hon. Medical Director of the Clinic, and
among those associated with her on the Honorary
Consulting Staff are Dr. Cyril Burt, Dr. E. Sloan

Chesser, Dr. Bernard Hart and Dr. E. Hamilton Pearson. The Clinic is supported by voluntary contributions and is at present in urgent need of funds to enable it to move to larger premises. Information may be obtained from the Secretary, The Children's Clinic, 85 Clarendon Road, London, W.1.

£40,000 for Physical Training Colleges

The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust has offered £20,000 each to Goldsmith's Training College, New Cross, London, and to Leeds Training College for the establishment of facilities for the instruction of teachers in physical training.

Foreign Students in U.S.A.

Some interesting figures are published in the Tenth Annual Report of the Institute of International Education showing the numbers of foreign students in the colleges and universities of the States during recent years. The figures include only students who have visited the States for the purpose of taking courses in educational institutions and do not take account of foreign residents. During the year 1928-29 China heads the list with 1,287 students; the Philippines sent 1,073, Japan 814, Russia 501, England 369, Germany 360, France 122, Scotland 71, Wales 11. The figures for England show a steady increase during the last seven years. Germany's increase has been more rapid, having advanced to 360 from 49 in 1921-22. Figures for France show a slight decrease.

Educational Changes in Czecho-Slovakia

After the war educators were eager to begin the work of renovation, and a new basis for Czech schools was worked out by Joseph Ulehla and Prof. Drtina. In Slovakia two new universities and many technical schools were established. Among the most important changes was the inclusion of civic instruction in the curriculum of the Czecho-Slovak elementary schools. During the last few years the influence of American educators has been marked and there has been a growing tendency towards internationalism. An interesting experimental school for scientific research in education has been started by Prof. Chlup, and is attached to the Masaryk University at Brno. All the better public schools are keeping pace with progressive tendencies: "Activity Schools" is their slogan.

The Prague Pedagogical Institute has undertaken research into the influence of social conditions on the school progress of children, and as a result visiting teachers are to be introduced into the educational system, the number of school doctors will be doubled, central offices for child welfare organised and close mutual relations established between all social institutions and the school. At Brno, a Pedagogical Centre has been established consisting of a pedagogical museum and an institute for the scientific study of education.

Unique Educational Plan

A somewhat unusual idea for promoting education among the masses is now in operation in Germany. The men employed on the Reich railroads in out-of-the-way places—pointsmen, plate-layers, clerks at small country stations—are destitute of the facilities afforded by continuation schools which their town colleagues enjoy. Hence the *Unterrichtswagen* (the instruction coach), a type of railway carriage hitherto

unknown. Sleeping-cars that are no longer in use are converted into classrooms, each with thirty-six comfortable seats, reading desks, built-in cupboards, a cinematograph screen and, in short, everything necessary for instruction. Some cars are equipped for giving specialized instruction in one or two subjects. The Railway Company at Altona maintains a travelling school of this kind for complete training in signalling and the operation of brakes, with block system and efficient sets of models. Other coaches are fitted up for wireless operation, instruction in the greater efficiency of work on the line and even in electro-technics. These travelling schools, which now number more than 100, visit the most remote corners of the Reich, keeping railway employees versed in the technical improvements of the day.

International Montessori Society

The International Montessori Society has been founded under the presidency of Dr. Montessori, and will have its headquarters in permanent association with her wherever she may be. The English Branch of the Society has headquarters at the Montessori Training College, Studio House, Rosslyn Hill, London, N.W.3. A Teachers' Bureau has been established at Studio House to deal with enquiries for Montessori-trained teachers.

Glasgow's Nursery School

A nursery school is to be provided in Glasgow by a joint committee representing the Nursery School Association, the New Education Fellowship and the Women's Educational Union. A fund is being raised from voluntary subscriptions for this purpose. When the school is ready it is to be handed over to the Glasgow Education Authority. It will provide for children from two years up to school age, and its pupils will be children from poor districts.

Message from Japanese School Boys

At a Meeting of the Seisoku Middle School, Tokyo, held under the auspices of the Seisoku International Association, the following message was adopted to be sent to schoolboys in other countries:—

"We, boys of the Seisoku Middle School of Tokyo, who have always stood for dissemination of the spirit of the League of Nations, through the Seisoku International Association, want to address the high schoolboys throughout the world. Just as our bodies are made up of several individual parts, so the body of humanity is a large being composed of individuals of different races and nations. So even though we have not seen or been able to talk with each other, we should mutually share our feelings of happiness and sorrow as brothers of the world. Your joy or grief is nothing but our own joy and grief. So, unseen friends, you who form a part of that big body of humanity, let us co-operate together to the end that the highest interests of the body of humanity as a whole may, in a wider and deeper sense, be accomplished."

International Education

Bierville. In Bierville, near Paris, already famous for its Peace gatherings, M. Marc Sangnier has started an international school for students during holiday periods, and also an *Ecole de Culture* for elder boys. Teaching is given in small groups and closely allied to practical activities. The school offers special opportunities for English boys who

wish to become acquainted with French life. Further particulars from M. Marc Sangnier, 34, Boulevard Raspail, Paris VII.

English and German Exchanges. A committee, representing the Incorporated Associations of Headmistresses, Headmasters and the Associations of Assistant Masters and Assistant Mistresses, has been formed to facilitate exchanges between English and German secondary school teachers. In addition, the Committee will co-operate in the arranging of hospitality for teachers from abroad during their holidays, in exchanges of pupils and of correspondence between German and English pupils, school exhibitions, etc. A similar committee has been formed to represent the teachers in secondary schools in Germany. The Anglo-German Academic Bureau, 58, Gordon Square, London, W.C.1, forms a link between the two committees.

The Friendly Adventurers. The objects of the Honourable Company of Friendly Adventurers, whose ship is moored at Charing Cross Pier, are to make a tour abroad a practical part of every average education, and to encourage personal acquaintance between children of different nationalities. The London County Council has lent the Adventurers (who number 50,000 children from all parts of the world) a pier in the centre of London at which to moor their ship-headquarters; German civic authorities have placed three old castles at their disposal, and educational authorities are prepared to allow these tours to count as school-work so that pupils are to be allowed to travel in school-time. A fortnight's tour abroad is being arranged this summer for 4,000 children in parties of 7 or 14 for £5 per head from London and back (all included). The tour covers: Ostende, Bruges, Brussels, Aix-la-Chapelle, Cologne, by steamer up the Rhine to St. Goar (Castle Rheinfels), Coblenz, along the Moselle to Trier, through Luxemburg back to Ostende. The tours will be arranged between April and September. It is anticipated that in 1931 4,000 American children will visit Europe. M. Briand, during his recent stay in London, visited The Friend Ship. Further particulars from The Skipper, The Friend Ship, Charing Cross Pier, London, W.C.1.

The Travelplay School is offering to take a group of boys and girls between the ages of eight and fourteen to Switzerland during the summer holidays. The group will make its headquarters at the Fellowship School, Gland. The Travelplay School is neither a camp nor a traditional school, but combines a chance to see Switzerland as an 'insider' with the opportunity to lead a wholesome, creative, child-like life. The teaching staff will consist of eight persons, including the Directors, Miss A. F. Gifford, Director of the Erie Day School, and Miss Truda Weil. Further particulars from Miss Weil, 220 East Tremont Avenue, New York City.

U.S.A. School extends Classrooms to Europe. Sharing youth's dissatisfaction with texts and youth's long-standing demand for experience, several colleges have extended their classrooms to Europe. The same problem exists in the secondary or preparatory schools. A growing number of Mary A. Burnham school parents want their children to receive the early stimulus of old-world culture. The rising demand for post-school activities and the increasing interest in European study have already caused the Directors of Mary Burnham to look for a solution. Few will question that the post-school problem can best be solved by those who have had in hand the previous

training of the student. The plan of the Mary A. Burnham School in Europe is as follows. Five of the Mary Burnham students under the direction of Mrs. Frederick T. Rouse, settled down in Rome for the first semester and in Paris for the second half of the school year. The Christmas and Easter holidays were devoted to travel. At the close of the Paris semester the school will come to England for a stay, and sail from Southampton, arriving in the States in time to attend commencement at the Mary A. Burnham School in Northampton, Mass. The purpose, while abroad, is to get from Europe those things which Europe has to give. While a curriculum is set up for each semester offering courses in French, Italian, Contemporary Civilization, History and Literature, and History of Art, it is a supporting structure, not a strait-jacket. Books are consulted for reference, but the main business of learning is transacted directly between the students and their teachers, who interpret the cultural materials of museums, historic spots, national traditions and contemporary civilisation. The Mary A. Burnham School in Europe has been made possible by the careful planning of The Open Road of New York and their European associate The International Students Hospitality Association of Geneva, a non-profit-making cultural organization which develops and facilitates international contacts. The organization serves the school in the capacity of advisers in the projecting of plans and as a link with European educators and institutions.

League of Nations Work in U.S.A.

Education in the facts of the League of Nations is an important feature of the work of the League of Nations Association of the United States. The Educational Committee is pressing the preparation of handbooks dealing with the League for the use of high school teachers and students of history, publication of a monthly news sheet for use in schools and libraries, and lectures on League problems to teachers of social sciences.

A special project, begun four years ago, is the National Competitive Examination on the League for high school students, the winner being given a trip to Europe, including a visit to Geneva. A similar contest is being held this year among students in teacher training institutions, in this case taking the form of the preparation of a thesis rather than a set examination.

Another project which has aroused great interest among private and public secondary schools and colleges, is the model League assembly. About 200 schools of all grades took part in such assemblies last year and the number will be further increased this spring. In a model assembly, students take the parts of assembly delegates, sometimes reproducing the actual speeches delivered in Geneva, and sometimes, in the case of the more advanced students, preparing original reports and taking part in original discussions, following, however, League procedure and using League phraseology. These dramatizations produce a really extraordinary effect in visualizing the League at work.

A Summer Home in France

"Kerdisheol", Val André, Côtes du Nord, France, is a spacious modern villa on the coast of Brittany where American girls are received for the summer. Here they come into close contact with the life of the

French village, tours are arranged to nearby villages and towns, and to Paris, individual lessons in French are given daily with ample opportunity for French conversation. "Before the end of the summer, every girl is speaking French (no miracles promised)." There is also plenty of the healthy, active, out-of-door life that girls need in the summer. Further particulars from Miss Cleaves, Francis W. Parker School, 330 Webster Avenue, Chicago.

Home School for Children and Adolescents, Vienna

Education in this Home, directed by Dr. S. Horovitz and Dr. Alice Friedmann, is based entirely on Adlerian principles. As a consequence of careful research, the Directors have found that continual discouragement and bad upbringing result in nervousness which can be cured by psychological treatment. Yet it is important for a child not to have the feeling of being treated. Lack of independence is the main cause of nervousness, as manifested in over-anxious, apathetic and in other ways difficult children. The right education teaches every child what his powers are and gives him courage to strive for the necessary progress in his work at school. The general curriculum of the School includes every kind of work together with rhythmic, orchestral and choral practices, language clubs and a psychological seminar. This small community of boys and girls, aged from four to twenty, stimulates a spirit of comradeship and responsibility in the individual. A detailed account of the Home's activities can be obtained from Dr. Alice Friedmann, Vienna VI., Linke Wienzeile 36.

Corporal Punishment in Austria

In the July 1929 issue of *The New Era* a statement appeared concerning corporal punishment in Austria. Further information has come to hand as follows:—"Corporal punishment in schools has been prohibited since 1870. Certain punishments are permitted by law such as reproof of the teacher, exclusions from some pleasure or excursion, retention after school hours under supervision of the teacher, and with suitable occupation, standing in the classroom.

Italian Tutor Seeks Opportunity to Study English

An Italian priest now teaching in Rome wishes to study English in England and is willing to give Italian lessons in exchange for board and lodging. He is highly recommended by an American reader. Further information from *The New Era*, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Fellowship Group Founded in Canada.

A group of the Fellowship was formed in Toronto in February of this year, and all interested are asked to communicate with the Secretary, Miss M. Lord, Regal Road School, Toronto.

Fellowship Group Founded in Northern Ireland

A group of the Fellowship has been established in North Ireland. Miss Amy F. Purvis, Principal of the Richmond Lodge School, Belfast, is chairman of the preliminary committee, with Miss M. McNeill as secretary. Miss McNeill is also an enthusiastic worker in the field of nursery school education. Good fortune arranged that Dr. William

Boyd, of Glasgow University, was in Ireland at the right moment, and he addressed the inaugural meeting. Mr. W. D. Cousins, Regional Principal and Secretary of the Londonderry and Limavady Regional Education Committee, and a group of colleagues, travelled seventy miles to give their support to this auspicious gathering. Will readers who would like to hear more of the activities of the Group please write to Miss M. McNeill, 64 Malone Avenue, Belfast?

Dr. Adolphe Ferrière to Visit S. America

Dr. and Mme Ferrière will leave in April for an extensive lecturing tour in S. America. Friends of the Fellowship in S. America who would like to meet Dr. Ferrière should address him c/o the Swiss Consuls in the following places:—Equador: Guayaquil, Malecon 1305/8 (May); Chili: Santiago, Calle Augustinas 1220 (June); Argentine: Buenos Aires, Calle Agenales 1908 (July); Uruguay: Montevideo, Calle 25 de Mayo 395 (August); Brazil: Rio de Janeiro, Case Post 744 (September).

English Section

At its annual meeting held in January members of the Fellowship in England were addressed by Sir Percy Nunn, who has been elected president of the English Section for 1930.

The Secretary of the English Section, Miss D. Matthews, has spent a month or two touring in the United States in response to an invitation given to her in her capacity of secretary to the Home and School Council.

Volunteers Needed at London Headquarters

In the summer months (June to September) many visitors from abroad call at the London (International) office of the New Education Fellowship, and wish to visit schools, etc. Will any friends of the Fellowship who have free time in the summer months and would volunteer to act as escorts to these visitors, please write to The Secretary, New Education Fellowship, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

The Kibbo Kift

The entire programme of this camping, open-air, educational movement, in which all co-educationists should be interested, is founded on H. G. Wells's *Outline of History*. Any interested teacher or educator would be welcomed into the ranks of these investigators, who are at present enquiring into the best methods of breaking the age-old taboos on biology (and sex science), economics and comparative religion. Enquiries should be addressed to Red Fox, "Heathermount", Rydes Hill, Guildford, Surrey.

Oberammergau

The International Fellowship of Reconciliation is organising a Summer Camp at Oberammergau, from 31st May to 1st October, for the duration of the Passion Play. The cost for a 3-days' stay is 23/-; 3rd class return ticket, £6 8s. 9d.; tickets for the Play, 5/- to 20/-. Fuller information from the Secretary, International Fellowship of Reconciliation, 2/26 Döblergasse, Vienna VII, Austria; after 25th May, to Fellowship-Lager Schützenhaus, Oberammergau, Bavaria, Germany.

BOOK REVIEWS

Adolphe Ferrière. By PAUL MEYHOFFER and W. GUNNING.

Adolphe Ferrière celebrated his 50th birthday last summer. To grace this occasion two friends have published a small book which consists in its second part of an interesting list, chronologically arranged, of all the philosophical and pedagogical works of this extremely productive writer. The first part gives a lively picture of the development of the man as philosopher and educator. Inspired by Demolins, he became interested in the New School movement inaugurated by Hermann Lietz, worked with him for some years and became one of his best friends. Dr. Ferrière published some standard works on civilisation and education, and numerous books and essays in which he has developed the ideas of the new education.

PAUL GEHEER

The Quest for Certainty: A Study of the Relations of Knowledge and Action. By JOHN DEWEY.

Being the Gifford Lectures, 1929. Allen and Unwin. 10/6.

An old, and rather tired, philosopher speaking the message of youth to an audience mainly much younger in body, but not so young in spirit; and a message which to the hearer seemed to oscillate between something too subtle to be grasped, and something too platitudinous to be what he meant. That was the impression which these Gifford Lectures made on me when I heard John Dewey deliver them in Edinburgh last summer. It is a keen pleasure to read them now in comparative leisure in the printed book.

The Quest for Certainty follows in the main Dewey's line of thought in his Japanese lectures of 1919, *Reconstruction in Philosophy*. "What is the cause and the import of the sharp division between theory and practice? Why should the latter be disesteemed along with matter and the body? . . . What would the effect be if the divorce were annulled, and knowing and doing were brought into intrinsic connection with one another? . . . and what change in the idea of the office of philosophy would be demanded? . . . These questions form the theme of this book." And the burden of the answer is that philosophy should give up the quest for certainty by cognitive means, and replace it by the quest for security by practical means. There is no antecedent fixed reality. "The world *as we experience it* is a real world." And it is a world in process of change; but change, instead of being mere change and decay, is, if we wish it, change and progress, over which, by means of science, we have, and are ever obtaining in fuller measure, control and mastery. Creation is going on, and man is taking a share in it. He is doing so by means of the experimental method of science, in which knowing and doing are interwoven. But this science does not tell us of reality as it eternally exists. Its cold empty universe, devoid of all the vivid qualities which we value, is merely a system of book-keeping by which we can pass from one experience to the prediction or the control of others. Greek science operated with *objects*. But this science operates with *data*, given us that we may make some changes in the consequences. It only

destroys the "poetic dream of ages" if the qualitative world is taken to be an object of knowledge, and not of experience in some other form than knowing.

"Philosophy is a liaison officer between the conclusions of science and the modes of social and personal action through which attainable possibilities are projected and striven for." Such in the bald outline possible in four hundred words is the message of this book. If the reader will forgive a good deal of reiteration for emphasis, he will find it a pleasure to read. Education is mentioned only once, but everyone knows how Dewey's *Weltanschauung* is influencing educational theory, which, in his words on page 240 here, "holds the key to orderly social reconstruction."

GODFREY THOMSON

Creative Power. By HUGHES MEARNS. Doubleday, Doran and Co. \$3.50.

I don't mind confessing that my first reaction to this book's yellow dust-cover with its flamboyant advertisements, was to send it back unread. After reading a few pages I began to think there was something in it; before long I couldn't stop reading it; and at the end I regard it as one of the freshest and most stimulating books ever written about anything to do with education. Professor Mearns's general thesis is that every child has something original and valuable to say, if you will only let him use his "native language" and not try to make him an adult "copy-cat". The process is of course slow and wearisome; for he protests throughout against the notion of just letting children go on without guidance and sympathetic criticism. To learn what Professor Mearns's professional skill is, one must read the book; and its evidence appears in the remarkable samples of children's work, both prose and verse, here collected. He gives many salutary warnings. He admits that "with characteristic hustle America has suddenly adopted 'creative work'"; and much of it, one gathers, is not the genuine thing. There are some real dangers: "I know that this book will do incalculable harm if it seemingly gives sanction to those who are continually pressing, uninvited and unwanted, into the privacy of the lives of the young". No teacher can read this book without heart-searching; if he can imagine himself working on these lines, then let him try; if not, he had better incorporate what he can into his usual type of teaching, and leave the rest alone. But for those who are young enough (whatever their years) the reading of Mr. Mearns's book may be the foundation of a kind of work which they could never have conceived without it.

F. A. CAVENAGH

The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations.

Published by the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

It is to be hoped that this book will be used by teachers of all countries so that there may be a bond between them in their efforts to give to the children in their charge that outlook which will ultimately find its expression in world peace and friendship. It is admirably suited to form the basis of a syllabus

on which teachers may build a most interesting series of talks and discussions on the League and its numerous activities—and it is also suitable for a textbook for the middle and upper forms of secondary schools.

Part I is a general introduction. Part II deals with the organisation of the League. Part III gives an excellent account of the Permanent Court of International Justice and the International Labour Office, and explains the work done by the various Commissions.

The full text of the Covenant is printed, and plans which shew clearly the activities of the League and of the I.L.O.

Sir Eric Drummond and his collaborators have provided a book which will be of much help to teachers in their important work of training the youth of the nations in ideals of co-operation, service and peace.

B. M. BAKER

The Ordeal of this Generation. Halley Stewart Lectures, 1928. By GILBERT MURRAY. George Allen and Unwin. 2/6 and 4/6.

Our world is in disruption: through economic and scientific changes, and through war. But life moves to a rhythm of peace and strife: what the nineteenth century built was scattered, and we must re-build. That is our "ordeal". War—expensive, deadly, not a passion but a policy—must go, for the League of Nations is our great constructive effort. Professor Murray describes clearly its formation, its achievements, its hopes, especially in relation to the British Empire, and summons us to share his fervent belief in its "power of saving society, even where the covenant itself does not hold".

VERA VAUGHAN

Race Attitudes in Children. By BRUNO LASKER. Henry Holt and Company, New York. \$4.00.

The relations between different racial and national groups are of very great importance in American life, and Mr. Lasker's book helps very considerably the understanding of these. The mass of material may be divided into "factual" and "speculative". The "factual" matter is presented in the form of "cases." The "speculative" matter shows the part played in the creation and development of race attitudes by the instincts, by institutional influences, school education, etc., and what might be done to promote right race attitudes is discussed. Though much applies to America and American conditions only, we realise in Great Britain that the race attitudes of the peoples of Europe constitute a menace to peace and understanding, and we are grateful to one who has blazed a trail which may be followed with advantage.

G. H. GREEN

The Modern World. By F. S. MARVIN. Longmans, Green. 3/6.

In this, the best short history of its kind we have seen, the history of the greater nations of Europe is taken separately, while that of the lesser is never ignored. Attention is paid to developments in political, scientific and philosophic thought, colonial expansion links events in Europe with contemporary happenings in other parts, and the chapters on post-war Europe and the League of Nations give a full view of the historical stage. This history will help the clearer understanding of the puzzle of the nine-

teenth century, and solve some of the questions of to-day to which so dusty an answer is often given.

G. C. ROWNTREE

Walther Rathenau. By Count HARRY KESSLER. Translated by W. D. ROBSON-SCOTT and LAWRENCE HYDE. Gerald Howe, Ltd. 16/-.

In a few words it would be impertinent to give critical notice to the subject of this book—the man who, says Dr. G. P. Gooch, was "the most remarkable public figure in Germany during the last decade of his life". Remarkable as man, statesman, scientist, philosopher, *littérateur*, Walther Rathenau will be remembered by many chiefly for his work of initiating the policy of European co-operation, of understandings in the West and resumption of relations in the East, that is the basis of the modern Germany. This is a book of unusual power and of absorbing interest.

A History for British People. By D. C. SOMERVELL. G. Bell & Son. 12/6.

Mr. Somervell's latest production contains 1,100 pages and covers the whole course of British history, with an introductory section on Greece and Rome, and discusses throughout continental and colonial events of special importance. This book is outstanding. It challenges comparison with the masterpieces of J. R. Green and G. M. Trevelyan, and to younger minds it will no doubt prove preferable. It is at once concise, reliable and stimulating.

J. V. COOPER

History in School. By H. ANN DRUMMOND. Harrap. 5/-.

The special interest of this book is that it deals principally with the application of the Dalton plan to history. History is perhaps the one of all subjects to gain the most from this treatment, with its great opportunities for individual study and for the making of maps, charts, and all those other things that add life and colour to it. There are chapters on civics, biography, handwork and reading, lists of textbooks, and specimen assignments—most useful to teachers anxious to know how history is presented in a school where it is a really live subject, and where there are exceptional opportunities for experimenting.

J. V. COOPER

The Learning of History in Elementary Schools. By CATHERINE B. FIRTH, M.A., D.Litt. Kegan Paul. 6/-.

Miss Firth's masterly little work reveals thorough command not only of the subject, but also of the technique of teaching. It refers incidentally to almost every practical device the ingenious teacher could initiate for the better presentation of his subject, enhancing of interest, testing of knowledge, and so forth. Perhaps the most adequate idea of the book that can be given in small space is to mention some of its chapter headings. These include: The Place of Questions; The Learning of Chronology; The Use of Pictures; The Use of Original Authorities; Individual Work; Local History; and History for the Very Young.

J. V. COOPER

Everyday Things in Homeric Greece. By MARJORIE and C. H. B. QUENNELL. Batsford, Ltd. 7/6.

It can hardly be too much to say that the Quennells with their "Everyday Life" series have introduced

a new era into the teaching of history. Of this fascinating series the latest number is one of the most attractive. The first half of the book tells the story of the Iliad and the Odyssey in the way it should be, but has not yet, as far as we know, been told. That is, it gives the order and incidents as Homer gives them, thus preserving the dramatic interest. Just the right amount of actual quotation is used and just the right amount of explanation added. For instance: 'The fourth book opens with a consultation between the gods as to "Whether once more we shall arouse ill war and dread battle din or put friendship between the foes?" Father Zeus who loves the men of holy Ilios (Troy), wishes for peace, but Athene and Hera sit by him and devise ills for the Trojans.'

The second half of the book contains an account of the recent discoveries at Mycenae, Knossos, and other places which have revealed so much about the Homeric and pre-Homeric civilisations. Here questions of architecture, navigation, manners and costumes are dealt with in the usual simple yet thorough-going manner of the authors. The whole is illustrated by the authors with beautiful sketches, diagrams and whole-page illustrations from ancient vases and modern photographs. In short, a book to be possessed by all who teach or are interested in ancient history.

J. V. COOPER

The Story of Youth. By LOTHROP STODDARD. Victor Gollancz, Ltd. 15/-.

This is a delightful book, dealing with children of all ages and civilisations in a pleasant, chatty, yet always clear and well-informed manner. Much reading lies behind its achievement. The story of the upbringing of Charles James Fox shows that the father of this great statesman had very modern ideas; he stretches a hand, metaphorically speaking, to Homer Lane and A. S. Neill! The artist has failed to grasp the fact that the proportions of a child are very different from those of an adult, especially as to the relative size of body and head. His children therefore become mere manikins.

W. PLATT

Men Who Found Out. By AMABEL WILLIAMS-ELLIS. Gerald Howe, Ltd. 5/-.

The fourteen great discoverers (including Galileo, Faraday, Darwin, Pasteur, Curie) about whom Mrs. Williams-Ellis writes are treated so personally and naturally that they become friends who have done interesting and wonderful things about which one would like to know more. There are fascinating experiments that the youngster can himself make that change his "I wonder why" into "Let's find out why". Not least among the book's virtues are the facts that it shows that not all the great men are soldiers or statesmen, and that it kindles interest in discoveries being made and knowledge sought after at the present time.

The New Education in the Soviet Republic. By ALBERT P. PINKEVITCH. Translated by NUCIA PERLMUTTER, edited by GEORGE S. COUNTS. John Day Co., New York.

Dr. Pinkevitch, as President of the Second State University of Moscow, writes with authority of the principles underlying Soviet education. New

educators of the West may find the Russian passion for abstractions somewhat remote from their own mental arena, but the Russian State application of these principles has produced the practical reforms for which we contend with officialdom in vain. Pre-school education of the "nurture" type up to the eighth year; all schools co-educational and self-governing; teaching material centred round the single complex instead of divided into the rigid subject departments; schools linked up closely with the life of the larger community—all these must make us face the challenge of the U.S.S.R. as to the possibility of a sound educational system within our existing social structure. The family is taken as a fact of primary importance, and the amelioration of home conditions as an essential to the success of the educational programme. If Western nations be shocked at the statement that the school must "cast away all discussion about morality and ethics" as reminiscent of bourgeois ideology, they will find in the chapter on the children's collective, a full appreciation of the best methods of developing a social conscience, in connection with school courts of justice, and in chapter XIII sane and well-balanced discussion of the whole problem of sex education. But no treatise can convey that abounding confidence and enthusiasm for co-operative learning which distinguishes schools in U.S.S.R.

V. A. HYETT

Elementary Principles of Education. By EDWARD L. THORNDIKE and ARTHUR I. GATER. The Macmillan Company.

This book is suitable for teachers and prospective teachers, as it selects those general facts and principles of most service to them. The chief topics are the major objectives and the most insistent needs of education at the present time, the special functions of the school, the characteristics of children from birth to maturity, and the principles which underlie the learning and teaching processes and the selection and organisation of materials and activities for the curriculum.

Altogether it is a most helpful and suggestive book and deserves to become as widely used in Britain as in the United States of America.

H. WHITE

Education at the Crossroads. By LORD EUSTACE PERCY. Evans Bros. 5/-.

Lord Eustace Percy points out that all future progress depends upon adequate co-operation between universities, technical colleges and schools, and that the present position presents great difficulties. There is crying need for a policy which will co-ordinate all educational effort and provide a direct route from schools to technical colleges or universities, thus creating a new standard of values; "to teach a man to think about his job", whatsoever it be. "A man who has not learnt to move easily among books will never move easily among ideas." Industry demands "the man who can learn and go on learning, who can think and can be trusted to go on thinking". In the final instance the appeal is still to the universities for advice, initiative and co-operation in the framing of an educational policy which will make the ideal of a "continuous education" a reality.

A. FRASER LEE

Schools of To-day. By BOLTON KING. J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd. 3/6.

This book has appeared at a critical moment in the history of education, and Mr. King has put down in a clear, straightforward manner facts which, though perhaps known to the initiated, are not well enough understood by educators, ratepayers, voters, and all whose duty it surely is to know what kind of education is being given and can be given to children to-day. "The main business of Education is to form character" (page 71) is the recurring theme of the book. Two points stand out clearly right through its nine interesting chapters: 1. The moral aspect of raising the school-leaving age and so keeping girls and boys from 14 to 16 years of age under the healthy discipline of active school life. 2. The importance of good grounding in smaller classes, with self-government and self-discipline, for girls and boys over 11 years of age. Large classes, leaving age, education of children over 11, qualifications of teachers, elementary school methods, village schools, secondary schools, examinations, and finance—these problems are answered in detail. The best answer to the last problem is that the raising of the school age to 15 would enable 200,000 adults to be absorbed into industry.

E. C. STENT

Youth. By OLIVE WHEELER. University of London Press. 5/-.

The interesting and valuable part of Professor Wheeler's work is her plea for the new Central schools to establish a system which shall benefit the children as individuals rather than turn them into the required type of employee, and her daring scheme of enlisting the sympathies of industry itself with this aim. Her suggestions for reform of adolescent education are already adopted in new schools, i.e. the modified Dalton Plan, parent-teacher co-operation, and a place for handicraft in the curriculum. Her "irreducible minimum" of subjects and much of the latter part of the book will arouse criticism of the kind which compliments an author.

ELIZABETH JENKINS

Report of the Commission on Religious Education.

Press and Publications Board of the Church Assembly, London. 3/6.

This Church Assembly Report is marked by clear thought, temperate judgment, practical wisdom, and moderation in its claims for State aid for non-provided schools. It should be read by parents, teachers, educational administrators, citizens, whatever their religious denomination, or if they are of none. The chapter on religion and the home sums up soundly the difficulties parents find in teaching their children, and includes common-sense suggestions for co-operation between home and school. Co-operation between the Church Assemblies on the basis of the Majority Report would draw a cordial response from teachers, authorities and the public—a long step towards that educational ideal which comprehends development of the spirit as well as of body-mind.

BASIL YEAXLEE

The Child's Approach to Religion. By H. W. Fox. Williams and Norgate. 3/6.

Though a great deal of it is obvious, and some of it rather frite, this book is worth reading because it is unpretentious and sincere, and deals with prob-

lems which many Christian parents have to face. It is simply written and its outlook is frankly a common-sense one rather than an ecclesiastical. The book makes no attempt to deal with the deeper psychological problems underlying a child's approach to religion and his growing awareness of things unseen. The reviewer is grateful for two things—an excellent story about a little boy who said 'fiddlesticks' at the end of each petition of the Lord's Prayer; and a timely warning that a child's religious growth cannot be forced. Perhaps religion, like other things in school, must be caught rather than taught; and perhaps the lives teachers themselves live have a far greater influence on children than the things they feel obliged to say to them.

B. A. HOWARD

Modern Language Teaching. By CLAUDESLEY BRERETON, M.A. University of London Press. 7/6.

We welcome this comprehensive study of modern language teaching, which covers the whole field, from the beginners' class to the university, and offers valuable constructive criticism. Not only are general principles discussed, but also the numerous practical difficulties confronting the teacher in secondary, central or evening schools and institutes. Having something to say of methods employed in French and German schools, the author uses, and gives a full bibliography of, the best relevant English and foreign literature. The book is full of helpful suggestions for the modern language teacher and forms a notable contribution to the solution of a pressing problem.

L. WINIFRED NICHOLLS

The Shady Hill Play Book. By KATHARINE TAYLOR and HENRY COPLEY GREENE. MacMillan, New York. \$2.25.

This is a really delightful collection of plays—not the least of their charms being their unusualness in treatment and setting. The authors have supplied in concise and readable form a real need in many schools where teachers are on the lookout for good, suitable material in dramatic form. The beauty both of wording and of thought has been closely preserved. The details of the actual stage construction are most helpful—especially where the need arises for a quickly improvised stage in a confined space.

DOROTHY M. EASTON

Sham-Battle. How to Play with Toy Soldiers. By LIEUT. HARRY G. DOWDALL, U.S. Army, and JOSEPH H. GLEASON. Knopf. 6/-.

I turn from reading one of the disillusioned and sincere records of the late war to this sinister attempt to prepare our youth for the next.

Two American militarists—while the world is endeavouring to reduce its armaments—have devised a game of strategy, spying and casualties for the entertainment of 'boys of all ages'. The child-officers are provided with cannon and with lead replicas of 'cannon-fodder'; they are instructed in tactics and given rules for 'safety' and 'fairness' in conducting the slaughter of their tin symbols. The authors almost succeed in producing a book apparently innocent of propaganda—if the theme itself and innocence can be reconciled—but their intention to encourage the military mind is evidenced by little slips into jingo heroics, hymns to Mars. Sham-

Battle is an attempt to build upon the primitive pugnacity of youth an interest in the scientific technique of warfare, and as such must be classed among the discreditable reactions, the not-at-all-sham-battles, against Peace.
A. E. Lowy

The Child from Five to Ten. By EVELYN and MIRIAM KENWRICK. Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner, Ltd. 7/6.

The authors outline the many opportunities and problems that call for 'team work' between parents, teachers and medical men, and contribute valuable advice on the nurture and culture of children. They have perhaps cast their net over-wide, and on some aspects have made trite comment where more profound thinking is required—and is available; yet these pages should be read by the host of parents and others to whom 'modern' education appears a difficult or dangerous experiment. The Misses Kenwick succeed in presenting it broadly, sympathetically and convincingly. Many a child from five to ten—now—will be grateful for this book having been written.
A. E. Lowy

Save the Child. By EGLANTYNE JEBB. Weardale Press, Ltd. 2/6.

This little book is in the first place a memorial to one whose deeply-felt pity for the miseries of mankind urged her to found the Save the Children Fund. It reveals the thoughts that inspired her—thoughts that can hardly fail to inspire others. In the second place it gives a wide view of the work of the Fund, possibly one of the most important movements of the century, whether looked at from the standpoints of international politics, social science, or education. All who have the least interest in child welfare will feel that they must acquaint themselves with the handbook of the Fund, *International Handbook of Child Care and Protection* (Weardale Press), which provides a useful compendium on how the world's children live.

MARGARET T. SCOTT

The Visiting Teacher at Work. By JANE F. CULBERT. The Commonwealth Fund Division of Publications, New York City. \$1.50.

A handbook for visiting teachers, based upon experience gained in thirty three-year demonstrations. The book also tells what a visiting teacher is, and what she does for unadjusted children. The first half describes work with the child, and the later chapters discuss the visiting teachers' professional relationships with the school staff, and her preparation generally.

The Special Services of Education in London. Foreword by G. H. GATER and F. N. KAY MENZIES. Hodder & Stoughton, Ltd. 2/6.

This is a readable account of the measures directed to the health and welfare of children attending London

elementary schools, and to the care of those who are defective, neglected or delinquent. There are many illuminating illustrations and charts showing what is being accomplished by this preventive work, the value of which to the community is receiving growing recognition and increasing attention from the public. The sections on special schools and juvenile delinquency are especially interesting.

NEW BOOKS TO BE REVIEWED LATER

A Book of Lincolnshire Verse. Compiled by members of the Poetry Club, King Edward VI. Girls' Grammar School, Louth, England.

Motion Pictures in History Teaching. By DANIEL C. KNOWLTON and J. WARREN TILTON.

What Makes up my mind on International Questions. Five Outlines for Leaders and Members of Discussion Groups. The Inquiry, 129 East 52nd Street, New York City. Paper, 75c. each; \$7.50 a dozen. Cloth, \$1.00 each; \$10.00 a dozen.

Towards a New Education. Edited by Dr. William Boyd. Special Edition for N.E.F. members, 8/6. Knopf. 10/6. (This book is now available in the *New Era* Library, 11 Tavistock Square, W.C.1.)

League of Nations Educational Survey, No. 2. Secretariat of the League of Nations, Geneva. 2/- or 50 cents.

Reviews of the under-mentioned, coming from Abroad, arrived too late for inclusion:—

The New Education in the German Republic. By TH. ALEXANDER and BERYL PARKER.

The Training of Elementary Teachers in Germany. By TH. ALEXANDER.

YOUNG ESTHONIAN GIRL,

wishing to learn to speak English fluently, would like situation in school as **DOMESTIC HELP**, au pair. Has done parlourmaid's work for seven months in England. Free now.

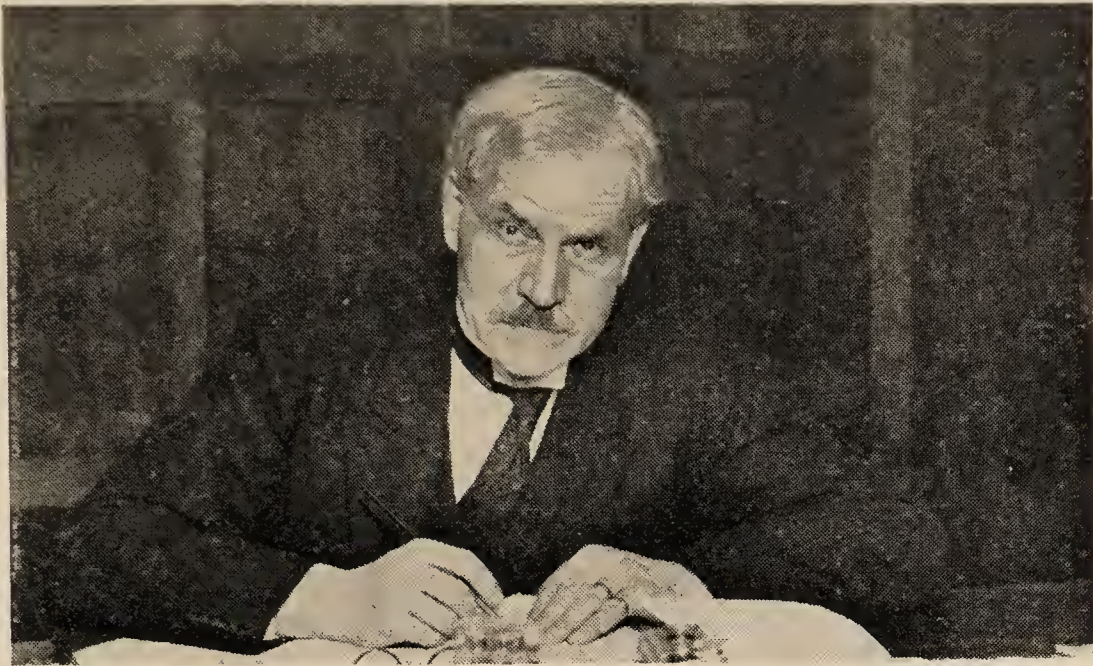
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[Daily Herald]

A MESSAGE

IN the world of to-day it is the men and women of character who count, those who can co-operate, bear responsibility, think peace, and extend their sympathies beyond the boundaries of their own nation and country.

Believing this, it interests me to know that the "New Era" is widening its field to include home as well as school education. For the home is the first school, and the influence of the home can be traced throughout a life. The best school in the world can be of little use if the home is unworthy.

It is essential that parents should know how to educate their children in the early days before they go to school, and that then home and school should know how to work together to fit boys and girls for the work the world will demand of them as men and women.

I will follow with interest the development of the "New Era".

Hammer Macdonald

They Say—

Professor J. Dover Wilson, *Professor of Education, University of London (King's College)*—

I don't think that anyone who contemplates the educational scene at the moment can seriously doubt that we *are* entering the 'new era', and by acting as a focus for experiments you are being of great service to us all. . . . Education is, in the long run, the only way to establish that permanent understanding between nations and between classes which will bring peace in the international and in the industrial sphere.

Dr. H. Crichton-Miller, *Hon. Director, Tavistock Clinic*—

My optimism stands firm when I contemplate the steady way in which the lump of school-teachers is being leavened by modern views. On the other hand I feel inclined to pessimism when I think of the raw material that the home is handing over to the school to-day. And so I wish you a triumphant success in your triple programme of enlightening the parents, encouraging the progressive teachers, and promoting parent-teacher co-operation.

Dr. William Boyd, *Lecturer in Education at the University of Glasgow*—

I can wish no better wish for the monthly issue than that it should maintain the high standard of interest and power that has made its quarterly predecessor a joy to all who look forward to the coming of the new era through a new education. The special appeal to parents . . . is a right development. . . . I have come to see that important as it is that the school should be a centre of new life, the deeper need is for the transformation of the home. If the *New Era* in its altered guise can inspire the parent as it has inspired the teacher the next generation will owe you a big debt of gratitude.

The Right Hon. the Viscountess Astor, *M.P.*—

The cause of Education . . . can best be forwarded by real co-operation between parents and teachers. The effort of the *New Era* to promote this co-operation and to tackle the various problems that arise in connection with modern methods of child training is deserving of support from all who really care for the children and their welfare.

Her Grace the Duchess of Hamilton and Brandon—

The *New Era* . . . has an important educational function and value. Reform in school life and by

newer methods of teaching is greatly needed. . . . it is especially important that children should be taught . . . the sympathetic study of all the varied forms of animal life. . . . Only by such training shall we produce a change of character in the young citizens of the future that will lead to ways of peace.

Sir Arbuthnot Lane, *President of the New Health Society*—

I feel sure it [the *New Era*] will serve a most useful purpose particularly in educating teachers who will impart knowledge of the greatest value to the young of both sexes . . . You are doing a great work.

Dr. Henry F. Munro, *Supt. of Education for Nova Scotia*—

The proposal to publish monthly is, I think, wise, and one cannot wish better for your magazine than that it will maintain the high standard already set by it as a quarterly. While all the objectives advanced are fundamental, perhaps the effort to link up parent and teacher in the work of the school will commend itself most widely.

Professor Godfrey H. Thomson, *Professor of Education at the University of Edinburgh*—

I welcome the monthly *New Era* particularly because its attractive appearance and its enthusiasm make students read it. It shares its objective of recording educational experiments with other magazines (though they are all too few) : but in gaining an audience it is unrivalled.

Good wishes have also been received from—

Dr. Cyril Burt, *Psychologist to the London County Council*

Dr. Ovide Decroly, *Professor of Child Psychology at the University of Brussels*

Dr. C. W. Kimmins, *Vice-President of the Child-Study Society, London*

John Masefield, *Poet Laureate*

Messages from friends in the United States and elsewhere will be published in August.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

NOT the least astonishing thing in this astonishing age is the ease with which man adjusts himself to the mechanical devices he has himself invented. He has harnessed the purring power of electricity—he flies in the air—he swims in the deep. With amazing rapidity he is learning to adapt himself to the circumstances he shaped.

Now, if adult men and women, the pliant days of their youth past, can be so changed and developed by environment, what effect can environment not have on the potentialities that make up a child? If powers latent in us are infinite, if environment can liberate them, surely then we must try to discover the environment which will bring out the best in everyone. Slowly we are realising that there may be a science of education, a science that will provide for the growth of the whole child and his social adjustment to his world. As Dr. Crichton-Miller says: 'Education to-day requires a tremendous concentration on the home side. We are faced with the fact that the home background of the pupil has undergone an incredible transformation. In that transformation Victorian shortcomings have been displaced by neo-Georgian undesirabilities.' The average parent has been content to leave the process of education to the expert—and alas! to the expert in factual knowledge rather than to the expert in child study. To-day, however, the findings of those engaged in the study of childhood are awakening in the intelligent parent a desire to know more of modern methods of education in home and school.

The First Five Years

We are realising ever anew the truth of the old

maxim that the first five years of life are the most important in the formation of character. If a child is ill, we choose our doctor very carefully. We have a man who has been qualified by years of training and experience. Yet how often do we trust our children to untrained nurses who may do as much harm to the emotional and mental side as an unqualified practitioner may to the physical? How gaily father and mother set out on the career of parenthood with no knowledge to assist them! And the irony of it is that long before their children go to school they have become 'problem' children. Anne, age six, soon learned that 'tempers' led to the gratification of her wishes, and caused her parents much uneasiness by the increasing frequency of her tantrums. John, age $4\frac{1}{2}$, became sullen and disagreeable after the arrival of his baby sister. He took to ill-treating his toys and, worse still, the cat. He was slapped and sent to bed, but this injustice increased his jealousy and his unhappiness, and he became more difficult than before. We are all familiar with behaviour problems of this kind, but we are not always aware that the fault is probably our own rather than that of Anne and John.

Nursery Schools

Dr. Blatz puts forward a strong plea for the nursery school as part of our educational system. In the home nursery the child's world is too often broken into fragments by adult 'do's' and 'don'ts'. Furthermore, the child segregated at home is debarred from contact with children of his own age, and so from his right social environment. We are gradually recognising that children must have their own environ-

ment, and it is interesting to note the number of small private nursery schools that are being started by parents in their own homes. Yet the goal to aim at is nursery schools for *all* children.

Education at the Cross-roads

Parents and teachers are still apt to think of school merely as a place in which a child must 'get on'. Seventy-five per cent of us have forgotten the encyclopædic knowledge learned in the schoolroom, and have experienced its uselessness. At best we have retained certain qualities of mind and a technique of self-expression. Yet, if the whole of life is education, school experience must be part of that whole, and as such should be a period of living growth sufficient unto itself and *not* a period of factual cramming.

Many schools are now experimenting in newer and better ways of presenting knowledge. As Lord Eustace Percy has lately pointed out, education is at a cross-roads, and educators are making new roads in the hope that they will lead to a solution of many problems. The dissatisfaction everywhere to be observed may be given expression in these questions: out of the mass of knowledge in the world to-day what really is necessary to fit a boy and girl for modern life? To what extent is differentiation permissible? Are school-leaving examinations, which demand a high degree of uniformity and standardisation, which test memory rather than personality, the best medium for deciding a candidate's qualifications for professional and other careers?

Parent-Teacher Co-operation

More co-operation between home and school, between parent and teacher, is essential if the many difficulties of this dual control are to be obviated. Parent-teacher associations in America and in this country are generally constituted so as to avoid any possibility of parents interfering in the school's actual organization, but they often provide channels through which parents are able to help the school. They also enable parents to know more about the school and its policy. They familiarize teachers with the child's background, and throw light on behaviour problems manifested in school. The

school can often help the parent to adjust home difficulties. The change of attitude that is taking place is most interesting. On the one hand parents are feeling that they must know more about their children's schools; on the other, teachers are realizing that the more interest parents take in school, the easier their own work is.

The New Era

We hope that the *New Era* as a monthly will stimulate active parent-teacher co-operation and child study. Success surely awaits the magazine if we can count on the co-operation of parents, teachers and all who have the interests of childhood at heart—on *your* co-operation. Let us have your suggestions, criticisms, questions and notes on child life at home and in school.

In its new form the magazine has three main objects. It will focus attention on the child at home, suggest how to prevent and treat undesirable behaviour and deal with topics that interest (and often perplex) parents. But it will also remain the teacher's outlook tower on the world of progressive education. Readers who are parents may thus gain an insight into school problems, while those who are teachers may obtain an insight into home problems.

The third main object will be to serve as a channel for educational thought. Everyone, everywhere—parent, child, teacher—has to face the same fundamental problems. By pooling experiences, by reading with the same end in view, by thinking in harmony, we shall create an attitude, a feeling, a mental unity, that will foster the cause of peace.

As educators we need vision. We are not concerned merely with the children in our own home or in our own school, and we must not be content to grapple with the problems that concern one type of school, one class, one nation, only. Our vision must embrace the whole child in all aspects of his growth; we must understand his physical, his mental, his emotional development from babyhood through the successive stages of childhood and adolescence. It is his right to live fully, to learn from his own experience, to grow. But if education is nothing other than 'schooling', this growth is frustrated and crippled.

Parent Responsibilities in Child Training

WILLIAM E. BLATZ

THIS title is misleading, for it gives no idea of the life and warmth of personality and experience with which Dr. Blatz invested the cold marble of pedagogics. Nor was the lecture entirely for parents, as such. For since the teacher stands to the child *in loco parentis*, teachers, actual and potential, are included in the term 'parents'. And all parents are, for better or for worse, teachers.

Dr. Blatz began with a deft apology. 'One of the very first times I lectured', he said, 'I noticed an elderly woman fidgetting more and more as the time passed. "*That* will be the first questioner," I thought. And she was. I'd hardly stopped speaking before she was on her feet: and her "question" was surprising. "Dr. Blatz," she said with conviction and emphasis, "it's easy to see that you've never been a mother!" And I couldn't deny it.'

He explained that what he had to say related to Canada. He did not know what conditions in this country were; but he supposed they were very much the same.

Though in medicine our knowledge of bacteriology has already enabled us to stamp out disease by prevention, in psychiatry we are still only beginning to talk of prevention. In Canada, matters are so serious that 4 per cent of the population finds its way into a mental hospital before the age of forty. Six years ago Dr. Blatz visited a State school in Canada in which were 1,400 children between the ages of five and sixteen. Looking at the rows and rows of bright faces, he found it impossible to pick out any forty of these children and say: 'You will be inmates of an asylum by the time you are middle-aged'—yet he knew it was so. In no case was there a sign of a psychosis. These 1,400 children will be watched for forty years; they have been watched now for six, and not a case of psychosis has yet shown itself. It does not seem likely that any will. This fact has greatly strengthened the conviction that psychoses are the results of circumstances, not of heredity: the end results of neglected causes. Statistics lead to the conclusion that there is something

radically wrong with our system of child treatment.

In Kingston (Ontario) Penitentiary he examined forty-five boys under twenty years of age. All were there through force of circumstances alone. In twenty-eight States he had found the same conditions. Criminals under twenty represent the mistakes of society. They mean that society has failed, and that it should inquire in each case whether the prison bars could not have been prevented. But society does not do that; it says, 'This is the parents' fault—or the grandparents'.

'Now there are three things', said Dr. Blatz, 'that seem to me to be dogmas—though I do not like dogmas. And the *first* has to do with heredity and environment. If from the beginning a rational, reasonable and sane environment is provided, no child will get into wrong social adjustment. The environmental factors are all-important. In ten years' examination in schools and institutions I have never found a case where environmental factors were not to blame. The commonly accepted view is that Johnny steals because uncle did so, or Jenny lies because auntie was a terrible one to exaggerate. This theory is entirely false.' He cited the case of a five-year old child whose parents were certain that she was going to be a case of dementia præcox because her aunt had been confined in a mental home for that disease. Their fear surrounded her with an atmosphere of apprehension and anxiety that was actually producing the undesirable symptoms. They took her for treatment. Their mistake was pointed out to them, and their attitude towards her changed. In a few months she was normal. Far too much importance, Dr. Blatz declared, is attached to hereditary causes. After a child is born, very little can be done about heredity, anyway.

Second—in the training of a child there are two main influences: the witting and the unwitting. The witting influence consists of rules and regulations of all kinds at home and at school. 'I have been in homes where placards

announce a penalty of one per cent for swearing for instance. There are schools in which offences are catalogued: late for school, 1 strap; dirty shoes, 2 straps; impertinence to teacher, 5 straps; impertinence to principal—it would be hard to imagine anything worse!—10 straps. In one case a record was kept, and showed that during a meal that had lasted 35 minutes, the mother had told her child to do or not to do something no fewer than 148 times! ‘This may be an extreme case,’ Dr. Blatz said, ‘but any of you who will keep a pencil and paper by you and jot down each time during a meal that you say “do” or “don’t” will be surprised at the total you reach.’

Third—the unwitting influence. This consists in the unwritten regulations under which a child lives. He learns very quickly to watch his parents and to size them up by a hundred little signs: the wrinkling up of their eyes, the movements of their lips. He learns when to hide a thought, when to make it ambiguous or to distort it, and when to speak the truth. It is impossible to demand a rigid code of honesty from a child. We ourselves cannot afford to be honest, or even to be as frank as a child. ‘If we were to say to ourselves one morning: “I will speak the truth on every occasion during the whole of this day”—well, we should either be behind prison bars or in a lunatic asylum before the 24 hours were out.’

‘A youngster of sixteen was brought up in the Juvenile Courts for stealing bicycles. His technique was to steal the bicycles from his pals, take them to pieces, reassemble different parts of different bicycles together, repaint them, and sell them to the very boys he had stolen them from! This was a baffling case, for the home was a good one. We thought: this *must* be heredity. Then we caught an echo of the father’s earlier life. He had been a lawyer in Winnipeg, and had been dis-Barred for misrepresenting facts. He came to Toronto and set up in the fur trade, and did well. He was now defending himself in the adult Courts against a charge of buying cheap furs, faking them, and selling at excessive prices. Here was the cause of the boy’s trouble. The predominant influence in that home was: You can do what you like as long as you get away with it. The boy’s motive, it appeared, was to see how

near he could walk to the edge of the precipice without falling off.’

Parents have three main responsibilities: education, socialisation and emancipation. In education, parents must undertake responsibility, and they must know what is going on in the classroom. Dr. Blatz cited an instance of a teacher who had to be removed because she had hallucinations. ‘We looked up her records and found that for two or three months she had been very restive, and had been sending more and more children to the principal without cause. She was over-strained, and her condition was the cause of the children’s behaviour. Her suspicions were affecting her whole class of 45 children, yet none of the parents realised what was happening. That was our mistake; we should have been watching more carefully.’ She was sent away on holiday, and the class returned to normal.

Then there was the case of eleven-year-old Dorothy, whose mother had been boasting about her since she was born. Her father and her grandmother boasted about her too. At the age of eleven, Dorothy got lazy, as children of that age do. She failed in her promotion exam., but knowing how disappointed her mother would be, she pretended she had been promoted, and talked of her new teacher, Miss S——. Then when this had been going on for nearly three terms, the mother one Friday evening said she must see Miss S—— next Monday to thank her for the interest she was taking in her child! On Saturday morning Dorothy had a temperature of 102°. The family physician said to keep her in bed for two or three days. On the Sunday the mother said that as Dorothy was so poorly, she would not go to see Miss S—— next day. The anxiety removed, the child began to get better—but she was too quick about it. She was so much better by Sunday evening that her mother said she would go to see Miss S—— after all. On Monday morning Dorothy’s temperature was again 102°. ‘On her mother’s exclamation: “I can’t understand this at all!” the child,’ said Dr. Blatz, ‘in a burst of tears confessed the whole thing. The mother also burst into tears and came running over to us to tell us about it. She was all for punishing Dorothy, but we had the father over too, and showed them how it

was not Dorothy's fault at all, but their own, and the grandmother's. They realised it, and it was their punishment to know what they had done to their daughter. Dorothy's punishment was to tell her grandmother herself all about it—so the grandmother got hers too. Her parents have never boasted about her again, and Dorothy is now sixteen, and working well and steadily.'

Education means learning how to control temper; learning the facts about sex—which is the parents' responsibility, not the teacher's; learning to develop attitudes towards things. It is not learning to do fractions. Why should all twelve-year-olds be taught fractions, and what countries wool comes from, but not be allowed to do creative work? Their interests must be developed from the beginning; yet moderation must be exercised. The trouble with some progressive schools is that they are too progressive.

As regards socialisation, everyone from St. Augustine to Freud has said that the first five years of life are the most important. How then can one socialise a child? Many parents say to their children when they go to a party: 'Be sure to say, "Thank you, I have enjoyed myself very much", when you leave.' That is no way to socialise a child. He may not have enjoyed himself at all. The only way to socialise a child is to put him with children of *his own age*. Up to five years old, children should not be with their parents for more than one hour a day. 'This may seem a hard saying to some of you parents present,' said Dr. Blatz, 'but I assure you you will enjoy your children much more if you see them for only one hour in the

day.' Up to the age of two, no child is social. 'He can safely be put into his room, alone with his playthings. Preferably the door should have a latch on the outside, so that he can be fastened in. Then you know he is safe. And

he is happy, for up to two he is happy *alone*, with his toys. After two, he begins to develop the social sense, and should be placed with other children of his own age. Send him to a nursery school; if there isn't a nursery school, combine with other parents who have children of the same age, and have them all together somewhere. *The true education of children is education by their comrades.* That is the rationale of the nursery school in Canada, where it is a place where children between two and five can be with others of the same age, and learn how to control their

tempers, how to express their emotions. There is no use trying to teach a child not to be angry, not to be afraid. What they have to learn is *when* to be angry, and *when* to be afraid. This they will learn from children of their own age, never from adults.' From children of their own age they will also learn when to be self-assertive, and when self-negative.

'I don't know about your nursery schools over here,' continued Dr. Blatz, 'but in a Canadian nursery school there is never enough equipment to go round. There is perhaps one bicycle to a dozen children. I was once watching twelve or fourteen of them all queued up for the same bicycle. Boy No. 1 started off for one turn round the room on it. Then the next child had his turn. Sometimes one would try to get in an extra round, and then

THE AUGUST ISSUE

The Right to Happiness

A. A. MILNE

HOLIDAYS

A Year in Europe

Canoe Lake Camp, Canada

Down the Rhine

Easter in France

NEW PLAN OF HOMEWORK

the whole lot would set upon him, pull him off, and give the bicycle to the proper child. The one who was pulled off made no bones about it; he trotted quite happily to his place at the end of the queue. He had made his little try, and it hadn't come off—that was all. I asked the teacher in charge if this queuing up had been taught the children, and she said no, they arranged all that sort of thing among themselves. The teachers in Canadian nursery schools do not interfere with the children. We have a golden rule. It is: Whenever you don't know what to do, *don't do it!* This gives us a great deal of leisure!

(At a lecture given the following day in the University of London on 'An Outline of Childhood Motivation', Dr. Blatz said: 'I want to be a prophet: within forty years a law will be passed in Canada, and in other countries, that every child must go to school at the age of two, and remain in school until he is 10-15-20, or until, that is to say, he has reached the limit of his educable capacity.')

The third duty of parents is emancipation. They should begin to emancipate a child from birth. He did not ask to come into this world; he was brought here. His parents have no more right to direct what he should be and do than a husband has to direct his wife. A child is an individual, requiring advice and affection. But no child is born to obey. 'There should be a Bill of Rights for children,' said Dr. Blatz, 'and the first Article in that Bills of Rights should read: "WHEREAS I did not ask to be born into this family or any other family, I shall not expect to be asked to obey—unless my parents deserve respect; and then there will be no need to ask me."' Parents should earn their child's respect, and then train him to make choices for himself. He should be taught the alternatives, and to accept the consequences of his choice. Children need discipline, but it should be the discipline they need. Any little child of two or three will run out into the rain, knowing nothing of the consequences of wet feet. 'One way,' said Dr. Blatz, 'is to take up one foot and stick a rubber on it, and then the other, and a rubber on that, and let him run out. The other is to present him with two alternatives and let him make the choice—which he will do. Tell him: "As it's wet, either you

may put your rubbers on and go out, or you may stay in and go upstairs to your room to play." He will make a choice all right! "But," some mothers will say to me, "I want him to have fresh air, and if I have the windows of his room wide open, he may fall out." "Well," I should say to them, "it's up to you to see that he *can't* fall out; if necessary shut the windows. Discipline is more necessary for a child than fresh air. It is better for him to be indoors in a real good old fug of *his own choosing* than out in the fresh air of *your choice*." Parents must not save a child from the consequences of his own choice, but they must interpret to him the consequences of his choice in terms suitable to his mental development. Training should place on the child the responsibility for his actions.' Children brought up from the first on this principle are perfectly capable at adolescence of making a decision between what they want and what they ought to do.

(Answering a question regarding the teaching of the facts of sex to children, Dr. Blatz said that parents should always tell just as much as was necessary to answer the question at the time. One mother to whom he gave this advice said: 'But, Dr. Blatz, how *can* I tell my child the facts of birth? She cannot possibly understand them.' 'I said to her: "My dear lady, will you please tell me how that intelligent child can possibly understand how she came to be born in a gooseberry bush?"')

'These three things—education, socialisation, emancipation, if developed consistently, spell Discipline. Modern psychologists in Canada believe in self-expression, but not in self-expression in just any way the child likes. They insist on adherence to *some* type of discipline. They say: not freedom of action—but freedom of choice.'

(From a lecture given under the auspices of the Home and School Council in London, 12th May 1930.)



In the April issue of the *New Era*, certain sayings of Mr. H. G. Wells were quoted. The Editor regrets very much that acknowledgment in quoting these passages was not made to *No More War*.

LIZZIE MERRILL PALMER

1837



1916

I HOLD PROFOUNDLY THE CONVICTION THAT THE WELFARE OF ANY COMMUNITY IS DIVINELY AND HENCE INSEPARABLY, DEPENDENT UPON THE QUALITY OF ITS MOTHERHOOD, AND THE SPIRIT AND CHARACTER OF ITS HOMES

The Founder of the Merrill-Palmer School believed in Education for Parenthood

Why Parent Education ?

AGNES TILSON

PARENT education is not new. The history of all peoples, both primitive and civilized, shows that each generation has handed down to the next certain taboos, customs, and traditions with reference to child care and training which have transmitted what seemed best to the tribe or the nation. Until the last twenty-five years, however, most of our care and training of children has been directed by emotion and tradition. Since then there has been an increasingly important attempt to learn more about the child through the scientific research that has proved so fruitful in other fields. So, as a matter of scientific inquiry and organized education, parent education is of comparatively recent development.

Parent education is only one phase of the larger educational venture of to-day called 'adult education'. Formerly both elementary and higher schools tried, in the main, only to give each child the educational opportunities afforded by their curricula, and felt that their responsibility ended when the child left school. Recently there has been a growing tendency to regard the school as having a

definite responsibility toward preparing the child for life itself as well as for his share of the world's work ; to regard the education that prepares the person to make a living as merely one function of education ; and to view education as a training which should develop in people attitudes of self-education and ambitions for self-development which will keep them growing all their lives. The recent organization of the Adult Education Association and the National Council of Parent Education and the attempts of universities to assist their *alumni* in further development, show efforts to meet this newly realized responsibility.

For many years we suffered under the delusion that an old dog cannot be taught new tricks, but recent experiments (E. L. Thorndike, *Adult Learning*, pages 177-79), have shown that learning is not as much a matter of age as of ability, and that learning during adulthood is entirely feasible as far as age itself is a factor. These findings carry both comfort and a challenge to adults who wish to pursue new learning.

The desire of parents themselves to learn

more about their children explains the parent education programmes of to-day. It is not that the aims and ambitions of parents for their children have changed fundamentally. Like the parents of centuries ago, they want their children to be healthy, happy, and socially adjusted. But as standards have changed and life has grown more complex, old methods of dealing with children have proved inadequate. The increasing urbanization of life itself introduces a difficult problem. We live closer to other people and so must consider their comfort as well as provide opportunities for the physical and social growth of our children—matters which sometimes conflict. City parents find it more difficult than country parents to provide their children with the chores that give them not only a certain amount of skill but also a sense of responsibility and an appreciation of the dignity of work well done.

This universal desire of parents to do the best possible for their children, which has caused them to seek new information that will help them to meet the problems of family life in a changing world, has been paralleled by a phenomenal amount of scientific investigation relevant to the care and training of children. After a Japanese internee had taken many people over a hospital he said to the superintendent, 'Many look, but only a few see'. So it is with parents. Many look at their children, but only those who are informed see and understand their behaviour.

Scientific findings that have already changed the routine care of children have done much to alter old prejudices and practices. The newer knowledge of nutrition has caused many mothers to put aside their prejudice against the odour and taste of cod-liver oil and give it to their babies. It has also caused them to set aside traditional ideas of infant feeding and begin to give their babies vegetables and cereals during the first year. Since sun baths were discovered

to be valuable for babies and children, the 'ideal beauty' among children is the brown baby who has been given sun baths, rather than the pink and white child once considered so.

Since research has shown that children are especially likely to have outbursts of temper before lunch and before dinner, and that there are reasons for these outbursts, parents, instead of punishing their children for 'pure naughtiness', have planned a programme of rest and nutrition that will eliminate these trying times.

Sound information about children not only decreases the hazards and anxieties of parenthood but also increases its pleasures and satisfactions. To understand how children usually grow and develop physically, mentally,

emotionally, and socially, is valuable and satisfying information for any parent. To know that babies usually double their weight during the first four to six months and treble it during the first year, that they usually cut their first teeth at six months, that they can usually play 'pat-a-cake' by the ninth month, and that they should be able to feed themselves by the eighteenth month gives the parents a valuable yardstick for measuring their children's progress and adds to their pleasure in watching for new phases of development. To know that most children have a period of negativism or 'contrariness' between the ages of two and a half and four years helps parents to meet the child's first 'I won't do it' with greater wisdom than if they consider it a special fault in the child, due either to faulty training or to poor inheritance from the 'other side' of the family. To realize that young children enjoy the company of other children, even though they do not enter into group play until about the third year, assists parents to provide the proper environment for the child's social and emotional development. To realize that children are not born telling either the truth or lies, but with great powers of imitation which call for proper



Early Adjustment to the Mechanical Age

patterns to imitate, helps parents to fashion a home environment that will encourage telling the truth instead of falsehoods, because it carries greater satisfaction. To realize that caution, not fear, is to be emphasized in the life of the child helps the parents to train the child in such a way that he will have a basis for wise behaviour and decision-making in time of real danger, and will not respond with fear to a situation that calls for more positive behaviour. To realize that the braggadocio of adolescence is really an indication that the youth has met a situation he does not yet know how to solve—that it is really a 'defence mechanism' set up to protect himself from a feeling of inferiority in the new, adult world in which he suddenly finds himself—helps parents to be more patient with youth during this period, and to assist the boys or girls to acquire the feeling of security necessary to their adjustment to adulthood. All these problems, with their many individual variations, parent education seeks to solve.

It is probable that parents (and especially mothers, of course) have always discussed their child-rearing problems when they have met together. The parent education of to-day is but an extension of this interchange of ideas and experiences, organized more efficiently and given the aid of science through means of consultation with specialists who have studied the problems of parents and are able to give parents what is even more valuable than help in the solution of immediate problems—a picture of normal all-round development in children which is steadily coming nearer to completeness as further knowledge becomes available. Through this interchange of ideas with other parents who are meeting the same problems and the help gained from those whose profession is study in this field, parents are learning indirectly something that is of equal assistance to them in dealing with their children—and that is a less emo-

tional, more objective point of view toward the responsibility of bringing up their children, and a certain amount of perspective with relation to it.

Further changes in the basis of our social life which have brought parent and family education to the fore at the present time, are shifts in the fundamental philosophy underlying school programmes and family organization. When parents do not adjust the home environment to the newer philosophy of education, children are forced to adapt themselves to types of treatment that may vary widely, and behaviour problems are likely to arise as a result. To keep abreast of these movements, so that he may be as effective as a parent as in the other occupations and preoccupations of life, the parent needs some special help, however he succeeds in getting it—and the means and methods of making information available to him are multiplying fast.

Changes in the conception of the family and the relations of the sexes have had profound effects upon family life and have increased the need and desire for guidance among parents. Just as it is impossible for the child to live happily under fundamentally different types of treatment in the home and school, so is it impossible for us to live happily under a democratic political Government

and an autocratic government in the home. And, as Dr. Odum has said (*Man's Quest for Social Guidance*, page 244), it is impossible to have a democratic family if the father is all-powerful, the mother all-dominant, or the children uncontrolled. We have had many examples of all three types of family organization in the course of shifting from an autocratic form of organization to a democratic form. In the patriarchal family the father was all-powerful, and his word was final. Doubtless in the first stages of the 'emancipation' of women, we had many all-dominant



Learning to be Healthy, Happy, Socially Adjusted Citizens

mothers. And in the first chaos of new developments and new views of child care, not altogether past, when freedom without guidance was the slogan in the treatment of children, we doubtless had many families run by children without experience or maturity of judgment. To-day parents need help in organizing their family life in such a way that each member will have his share of responsibility and direction in the family life. The purposes which the democratic family needs help in achieving have been set forth as follows :—

Abandon the doctrine and the practice of the inequality of the sexes. . . . Develop capacity for deliberative group life by respecting and effectively utilizing any such capacity, however slight, that any member already possesses. . . . In a democratic family each member will perform regular, defined, personal services for the maintenance of the common life. In a democratic family each member will have a defined sphere in which he is entitled to initiative, and likewise one in which his own judgment is final. . . . Democracy in the family is to be promoted by providing common pleasures. . . . The unity of the family cannot be made perfect until family consciousness is fused with a wider social consciousness, particularly through participation by all members of the family in remedial and constructive social enterprises. . . . These conditions cannot be met without the domestication of private property. (George A. Coe, *A Social Theory of Religious Education*, pages 211-17.)

Before leaving the subject of why parent education has become so important a part of adult education to-day, the impetus given to the work by the experience of child health agencies should be mentioned. Both in England and in the United States, infant welfare work began with the plan of getting sick babies well. The agencies had not run long on this plan before they saw that their important, constructive work was to prevent babies from becoming ill. The splendid achievements of the English Maternity and Infant Welfare Centres are sufficient evidence of the wisdom of these preventive programmes. In America, as well, infant mortality and illness have greatly diminished under preventive measures. Similarly, the American mental hygiene agencies, which once limited their attention to finding out why children were delinquent and setting them back on their way to social adjustment, have found that delinquency is largely due to environmental factors for which the parents are chiefly

responsible, and have turned a part of their efforts from corrective programmes with children to preventive programmes with parents.

These, then, are some of the sources and causes of the widespread development of what we call parent education. In concluding, it may be well to warn against a misinterpretation of the movement. Though we have found that instinct and emotion are not sufficient to guide parents in caring for and training their children, we cannot substitute knowledge for the love of children that is fundamental to family life. It is the wise combination of knowledge and love that must set our standards for future home life and parenthood. Of this spiritual reality that is the true basis of the relation of parents and children, a Syrian poet writes :—

And a woman who held a babe against her bosom
said,
Speak to us of children.

And he said :

Your children are not your children.
They are the sons and daughters of Life's longing for
itself.
They come through you but not from you,
And though they are with you yet they belong not to
you.

You may give them your love but not your thoughts,
For they have their own thoughts.
You may house their bodies but not their souls,
For their souls dwell in the house of to-morrow,
Which you cannot visit, not even in your dreams.

You may strive to be like them,
But seek not to make them like you.
For life goes not backward nor tarries with yesterday.

You are the bows from which your children as living
arrows are sent forth.
The archer sees the mark upon the path of the infinite,
And He bends you with His might that His arrows
may go swift and far.

Let your bending the archer's hand be for gladness ;
For even as He loves the arrow that flies—
So He loves also the bow that is stable.

Kahlil Gibran, *The Prophet*, page 21



We desire to express our grateful thanks to Professor Franz Cizek for permission to reproduce on the cover of this issue an original design by one of his pupils.

Parent-Teacher Co-operation—its Value to the Teacher

LEAH MANNING



MRS. LEAH MANNING

(Reproduced by kind permission of
National Union of Teachers)

"No Parents Allowed"

SOME twenty-odd years ago, I stared at the above legend boldly printed in white paint upon a black board, and conspicuously displayed upon the gate of a public elementary school of the day. As one thinks back upon it, how redolent it is of those days of the 'School Board Man,' the red, vociferous, angry parent truculently bustling into the school playground, truancy, corporal punishment, and the whole general code of coercive measures!

In the quarter of a century which has intervened, quite insensibly the angry suspicious antagonism of the old days has modified into a coldly neutral attitude, then a rather grudging interest, and finally a warm admiration which nearly approaches parent-teacher co-operation. For the enlightened parent and the enlightened teacher have but a single end in view: the harmonious development of all the powers of the little child who stands between them.

Few educationists can think of a time when their task seemed more difficult. The pull of the home, the pull of the school, the pull of the thousand and one outside attractions and interests, provides the child and the young adolescent with that most puzzling and distressing of all tasks for an immature judgment—the reconciling of a set of divided loyalties.

The task is too great—the loyalties ought not to be divided, the three sides of life represented by home, school and community, disintegrated. Slowly the paramount task of the educator is emerging. He is becoming more plainly aware of the nature of this new problem which is call-

ing to him for solution and is gladly availing himself of opportunities of taking the first and most obvious step in the direction of reconciliation, that of parent-teacher co-operation.

And yet the step is not always as easily taken as one might imagine. There are traditions and conventions within the public system of education which are not easy to negotiate, and very definitely the way has to be paved.

Two sides to the Picture

There are two sides to the picture of parent-teacher co-operation, the first of which, parent education, is already engaging the attention of many important educational bodies both in Europe and in America. To the United States and Canada we owe a great debt, as pioneers in this movement. There, during the last decade, it has developed into a vast organization with a definite consciously-planned programme. Growing out of the National Congress of Mothers, it has become the National Congress of Parents and Teachers with a membership of over a million and a quarter parents. In 1928 there was established the National Council of Parent Education, embracing every type of agency concerned with the development of programmes in parent education. It can readily be understood what a tremendous contribution to our knowledge of child life such a body might make.

Those who were present at Edinburgh, Toronto and Geneva, for the Conferences of the World Federation of Education Associations, were greatly impressed by the tremendous enthusiasm of those who represented this

and similar organizations, and by a vision of the possibilities of an extension of the movement, suitable to English traditions.

For it is here that we turn to the other side of the picture. The value of such a movement to parents, who desire to make of parenthood a rational rather than an instructive job, is obvious. What is its value to us as teachers—especially to those of us who are teachers in the nation's schools? How can we help to foster the movement in this country, and along what lines of development are we likely to be most successful?

The Mass Approach

For many years now, individual teachers have accepted the task of propaganda on behalf of educational advance, among organized groups of workers, the majority of whom were also parents. Through the Trade Union movement, the Co-operative Society, the Workers' Educational Association, the Adult School movement, and Womens' Institutes, indeed through any channel which presented itself, teachers have sought to create enlightened interest in the work of the schools and in the need for more and better education. Quite consciously they realized that the repercussions of their propaganda would be greater opportunities for their own work within the schools. No better example of this can be found than their magnificent triumph over the half-time system in 1918, and in their propaganda for the raising of the school-leaving age during the last five years.

Teachers ardently desired the opportunity which an extended school life would afford them, of creating a better articulation between school life and after-school life, and of using the valuable years of early adolescence in helping their pupils to find their bearings. No one could give them this extra year but the electorate of the country, and they did not disdain to make their approach to the electorate, through organizations where many parents were to be found. It can be said without hesitation that the great educational reform now before Parliament, is the direct result of parent-teacher co-operation on a mass scale.

If we turn to the other end of the educational ladder, the education of the pre-school child,

we shall find that exactly the same process has been at work. Out of the flame of an enthusiasm caught from that grand pioneer, Margaret McMillan, women teachers have worked incessantly in the localities to persuade bodies of electors to place the education of the pre-school child upon their programmes. The result of that work is now becoming apparent. Few Local Education Committees are presenting three-year programmes to the Board of Education which do not make provision in one form or another for this important phase of education.

A Via Media

It is perhaps strange that teachers find it so easy to do this impersonal kind of work and yet shrink from attaining similar results through a close contact with the real parents of the real children in their schools. Yet by a process of gradualness methods *are* being worked out, which in the near future will make co-operation a vital factor in successful school organization. Indeed, in the new system of education envisaged in the Hadow Report, parent-teacher co-operation becomes an essential, if we are to reap the full benefit from 'reorganization' and the extended school life.

Through the medium of Open Days, Education Weeks, and Parents' Associations, the schools are achieving a method of approach to the parents which makes it simple to overcome that diffidence which so many teachers feel in this matter. The results which one may hope to achieve from this type of co-operation may be still a little impersonal, but quite certainly they create a very much happier atmosphere in which the teacher may carry on his work, and a sympathetic and appreciative attitude from the parents towards the school.

Comparison of the results obtained in various areas where parents' committees and parents' associations have been tried, tend to show that cut-and-dried schemes imposed by the Local Education Committee upon the schools are seldom, if ever, successful. In 1920, a well-known Education Committee in the North of England introduced such a scheme for all the Council Schools in its area.

The scheme as set out provided for:—

- (1) The establishment of a committee for each block of schools.

(2) The Committee to consist of:—

- (a) The Ward representatives ;
- (b) Head teacher of each department ;
- (c) One representative teacher ;
- (d) Three parents (to be elected at a public meeting of all parents who have children in attendance at the school concerned).

The convener of the Committee to be one of the teacher members, who should be responsible for convening the meetings, taking the minutes and reporting same to the Elementary Education Sub-committee.

The Chairman to be a member of the Council—preferably of the Education Committee.

(3) The functions of the Committee to be, to make recommendations to the Elementary Education Sub-committee in respect to the School:—

- (a) Fabric, including conveniences and playground ;
- (b) Ventilation ;
- (c) Lighting ;
- (d) Amenities.

4) Meetings to be held not less often than once a quarter.

Another notice states that the object of the Committees is to increase the efficiency of the schools, and by so doing to make the school life of the children both more interesting and more useful.

One can learn as much by studying failures as by studying successes, for at least a failure can often show how things ought *not* to be done. The scheme outlined above was abandoned with general relief, and the reasons are not far to seek.

There is neither warmth nor spontaneity in such a scheme ; it is showered upon the ready and the unready, the willing and the unwilling alike ; Ward representatives give the whole scheme a political flavour ; the election of three parents to speak for a block of 1,500 children is totally inadequate, especially as they would possibly be less ready to express themselves than the teachers and the town councillors ; the functions of the Committee were colourless and concerned with dead colourless things rather than living children.

There may have been more deep-seated reasons for the failure of the scheme, but even if there were not, those outlined above would be quite sufficient to account for it.

The most successful parents' associations are those in which *all* the parents of the children in a school meet regularly at the invitation of the head teacher and her staff, and undoubtedly the nursery schools of the country have led

the way in a movement which is spreading rapidly to all types of schools.

The Parents' Clubs of Lilycroft Nursery School, Bradford, where Miss Miriam Lord, the well-known lecturer on Nursery Schools, is Headmistress, is one of the most comprehensive and thorough-going in the country. It meets weekly, and the Mothers' Classes undertake every type of housecraft as well as running an extremely successful social side. The fathers, amongst whom are some very good workmen, have made many beautiful toys for the school, and have, as well, undertaken to repair all broken toys.

Most valuable to the Headmistress and her staff are the opportunities which the meetings afford to discuss individual children with their parents, to offer help and advice, and, above all, to seek for clues from the parents to behaviour characteristics, and to signs of ill-health or unhappiness which elude them during the course of their work. Once a month is 'lecture night' and the lectures are of varied character ranging from 'A Mother in Public Life' to 'Birth Control', and from 'Doctors and Treatment in Olden Days' to 'The Causes and Prevention of War'.

All the officers of the Association, including a sick visitor, are elected by the mothers and fathers, and the rules of the Association are simple and explicit.

The Individual Child—the Individual Parent

A parents' association which from the most formal of beginnings has achieved such a measure of co-operation between parents and teachers, has already paved the whole of the way, and has shown how approach to the parents in the interests of their children might be most easily undertaken.

The new secondary schools are intended to provide varied facilities and varied groupings for all types of ability. Unaided by the parent, it is extraordinarily difficult for the teacher to form a true estimate of either the child's worth *or* ability, and a Local Education Authority which attempts to mould a boy or a girl into a 'grammar', 'modern' or 'senior' school type, on the result of a written examination, has accepted only the roughest, readiest and most rule-of-thumb method of carrying out the

most difficult and most delicate of educational operations.

The 'Home Investigator', who acts as a liaison officer between home and school in America, undertakes a task of real value. It is her job to discover from the parents, what are the child's hobbies, his pursuits, the organizations and clubs to which he belongs, his general conduct at home, indeed all the information about the child which she can possibly collect. American schools are large—it is impossible for a principal in an American high school to undertake this job himself, and in employing a 'middleman' the essential spirit and value of the work may be lost. In England, more and more teachers are endeavouring to know the individual parents of their children, for in this

way alone can they extract the full value from parent-teacher co-operation.

Are all parents sufficiently interested, and if not, can we create sufficient interest to undertake this work with them? Watch the sudden kindling of appreciation on the face of the roughest loafer who sees the children merrily rush out of school into the playground for dancing, games or physical exercises. 'Come on Bill, come and look at the kids'—how often has some such exclamation brought a rush of unbidden tears to our eyes! Here is the raw material of our great enterprise. In the hands of the skilled and interested operative it can be woven into a fabric most beautiful in texture and design—durable for the storms of life and of a magic to catch and retain all its joy.

The League of Nations in Schools

OLIVER BELL

ONCE upon a time it was open to doubt as to whether the work of the League of Nations was a fit subject to be taught in schools. That period is now past. The only question to be solved is, what is the best way to carry out this instruction?

The Assembly last September approved the convening of another meeting of the Sub-committee of Experts for the Instruction of Youth in the Aims of the League of Nations. This will be held on 3rd July. There are fourteen members from as many countries and the chairman is Professor Gilbert Murray, who is also chairman of the International Committee for Intellectual Co-operation, to whom the Sub-committee will report at its plenary meeting later in the month.

A report issued some years ago by the experts has proved to be the foundation of all subsequent work in this direction. Following its recommendations, in most countries there is direct and regular teaching in the State schools on the aims and work of the League, and, perhaps more important, emphasis is laid on the

fact that international co-operation is the normal method of conducting world affairs. To aid teachers the League prepared and published last year 'two common chapters'. This is a species of Reference Book dealing with the Covenant, the organization and the achievements of the League. It is intended to form a core round which each country will write its own textbook. It is an interesting experiment for 'it will probably assume a different form in various countries'. Action has already been taken in America, and it is hoped that shortly the British National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation will produce a textbook for use in Great Britain.

Professor Zimmern's *Educational Survey* is another upshot of the first meeting of the Sub-committee of Experts.

If this second meeting proves as fruitful as the first, it will not be long before the basis of education throughout the world will be turned away from the nationalistic form it has assumed during the last century, towards the earlier—and the latest—ideal of internationalism.

Home is Out of Fashion !

EVELYN SHARP

THE reformer has a hard life. If he attacks the existing system, he is called a Bolshevik ; if he tries to build up something better, he is called a crank ; if he tries to preserve something old, he is called a back number. Yet if he tries to accomplish anything at all, he must be all three. For it is quite evident that in every age much that is old must be discarded as having had its day, something else must be put in its place, and nothing new can endure unless it is based upon eternal truth whose roots are in the past. All this is so obvious that an apology should accompany its repetition, were it not for the curious fact that only the obvious ever seems to require repetition ; the merely novel, having as a rule little claim to permanency, can be trusted to look after its own publicity for the duration of its brief popularity.

The writer of this article has reached the third stage in the evolution of the would-be reformer. After being regarded first with suspicion because one saw the defects in former systems of education, then with derision for examining and even recommending newer systems, one is now beginning to be considered a relic of the past because of an occasional suggestion that there may be some features of the older methods that are worth retaining. Quite a good case, as a matter of fact, might be made for the assertion that one is, on the contrary, in advance of the times, if only for the reason that, amid the universal iconoclasm now proceeding, one is trying, however feebly, to detect what is worth saving for the future. As Thoreau says, you must first have your castle in the air, but afterwards you must build the foundations to it. And the foundations of the future—again to state the obvious—must have their roots in the past, rock having been there long before sand.

The mistake we make, perhaps, is in failing to look far enough back into the past. To be really constructive it is not enough to be a back number ; one must be positively out of print. The past that matters is not the immediate past, but the past that saw the beginnings as well as

the later developments of civilization. We shall not discover where we have gone wrong hitherto in our upbringing of children if we confine ourselves to criticism of the Victorian period, except in so far as its defects or advantages sprang from something far remoter than the nineteenth century. Now that education, at home and at school, is more or less in the melting-pot, it is a dangerous temptation to show our intolerance of Victorianism by hastening to substitute something else that, through too complete a break with tradition, might easily end in disaster because it failed to take into account the unchangeable in human nature.

There is no doubt that the home, with the family as the unit of society, has fallen out of fashion. This is, of course, a perfectly natural reaction against the undue and disproportionate importance attached to it in the last couple of generations, when it resembled something more like a citadel. In fact, if the Englishman's home had never been allowed to become a castle, it might have remained a home and we should not want to destroy it to-day. To children and women it even became a prison. The ruthless energy of the iconoclast can be better understood when we relate to it unforgettable descriptions of the sufferings of childhood in such books as Butler's *Way of all Flesh* and many of Dickens's novels, and to those of girlhood revealed to us by the Brontës and George Eliot. The iconoclasts can certainly be understood—but they need not be allowed to run riot or go unwatched. Reactions, like curses, sometimes come back to roost ; and it is important to feel sure that something eternal in human nature demands the complete dissolution of family life before we break up the home altogether, lest the inevitable swing of the pendulum hurl us all back again into the Englishman's castle that was a prison for the child and the young girl.

There are, fortunately, two safeguards against that possible culmination of our modern effort to reform education. One is the evidence of the past as to the inherent capacity in the human

race for maintaining a happy family life ; and the other is the existence of the modern movement to reform the home as well as the school by bringing the two into harmonious co-operation. For those who are aware of the need for these two safeguards there is much to be gained by reading Professor Elliot Smith's latest book, *Human History*, just issued, in which he shows that a mass of evidence has been collected about primitive man on the subject of what he calls 'behaviour in family groups'. The nature of the evidence, drawn largely from the independent testimonies of travellers, indicates that scattered remnants of primitive (not savage) races, who are direct descendants of the nomads who wandered about the earth before civilization began with the introduction of agriculture, are still living in different parts of the globe, as in pre-historic days, in family groups composed of relatives, dissociated from any form of corporate life whether in village, town, or state. And this evidence leads him to the conclusion that 'the type of behaviour in family groups is stable, happy, cheerful, lacking in violence'; and that 'this may therefore be regarded as the standard of behaviour for human society'.

The book must naturally be read in its entirety for scientific proof and confirmation of this conclusion ; and we are not concerned here with all the characteristics of this type of existence as shown in the behaviour of those who still practise it in its simplicity, but, for the purposes of this article, only with the biological foundation it seems to afford for the retention of the family as the unit of modern society, and with the picture it gives us of the favourable place occupied by children in such family groups. Here are a few passages taken from the book, giving facts which have been at different times recorded by various travellers, who have lived with or observed the Congo Pygmies, the Veddahs, the Andaman Islanders, some of the Eskimo, the Bushmen, and several others :—

- (1) The children are well treated, and are rarely scolded or punished. Contrary to expectation, they behave themselves, and do not quarrel among themselves. The Semang children, for instance, are said to be a model for civilized children in this respect. As would be expected, the

children, being well treated by their parents, in their turn look after them when they grow old. The common rule is for these family groups to be described as cheerful, happy and in every way harmonious.

- (2) Within the group of relatives there is a strong feeling of respect for the elders. This is mentioned by more than one writer. This respect does not seem to be based on fear, for, as has been seen, the practice of violent punishment is negligible. The elders carry on a certain amount of education. The children are taught to behave themselves, to be hospitable, and generally to conduct themselves as decent members of society. Judging from the results, it is the most efficient form of education in the world, since it produces a more complete balance within society than any other.
- (3) For the Semang, marriages are not stable until children are born. Children are universally loved and petted by these people, so that they may form a fundamental part in rendering matrimonial union durable. Children are the cement of society.

Much more of the same kind could be quoted, and, without suggesting for a moment that modern man should return to the condition of a nomad, dependent for his food upon what he can gather or kill, we have some justification for believing, after reading Professor Elliot Smith's intensely interesting book, that there is a biological and historic basis for the evolution of education along the lines of a reformed home and a reformed school, acting in sympathetic and intelligent co-operation.

Modern as the home and school movement is, it was anticipated by Mary Wollstonecraft, who, in advance of her age as usual, advocated public day schools, for both sexes and all classes, in order that children should not altogether lose touch with the influences of home. 'If you wish to make good citizens,' she says in her great essay, *A Vindication of the Rights of Women* (1791), 'you must first exercise the affections of a son and a brother'. And she supports the home with a full sense of its deficiencies, exhibited in those 'vain fathers and mothers, whose parental affection only leads

them to wish that the children should outshine those of their neighbours'; and we find her contending further that 'parental affection is, perhaps, the blindest modification of perverse self-love'. On the whole, although she has also much that is scathing to say against the teachers of her day—'the pedantic tyrants who reside in colleges, and preside at public schools'—she seems to think the child would be a little safer with them than with their parents, if they must be exclusively with one or the other. Her argument, however, like ours to-day, is that both might be sufficiently improved to be able to act in co-operation for the good of their children.

Again speaking as a back number who has been both an iconoclast and a crank and retains dreadful traces of both, one cannot help feeling that the reform of the parent is even more necessary to the success of this new movement than that of the teacher; for the parent can always change the teacher of her children, while the teacher, however convinced of the parent's unsuitability for his or her high mission, cannot change the parent. I admit that in making this observation and others that may follow, I lay myself open to the reminder that I am not a parent. But most parents and teachers will combine solidly, in these days, to reject this moss-grown objection to the unmarried critic, which seems to belong to the period when the ignorant mother resented the advice of the unmarried medical woman on the ground that she herself had buried seven out of her eleven children, while her adviser had not brought one into the world.

Clearly, if it is felt to be desirable that the family should be retained as the unit of society, some alliance between home and school becomes essential as a defence against the subtle offensive of picture palaces, mechanical music, bad housing, and other features, good or bad, of modern society, that tend to disintegrate family life, to say nothing of the almost universal custom, now extending to all classes, of sending children to school at an early age. School life must be a natural addition to home life, not a crude and even a hostile substitute for it. If this is true when children are quite young, it becomes doubly emphasized when they reach their teens. In view of the immense change that has come over our sex relationships in the

last thirty years, accentuated by the new freedom of girls and the consequent equality in their comradeship with boys, it is now essential for parents to co-operate with teachers in humanizing the period of adolescence and lifting it right out of the old atmosphere of furtive self-consciousness that robbed it alike of its naturalness and the joy that should accompany it. It will be useless for the teacher to maintain a modern attitude of understanding, accompanied by judicious instruction and aid when boys and girls arrive at their teens, if the parent in the home is going to lag behind and stay wallowing in the prejudices and inhibitions of the last century; nor, on the other hand, if parents are young and modern, will the pupils themselves endure an old-fashioned school regime that denies them the liberty of thought and expression to which they have been accustomed at home.

It is indeed at the growing age that harmonious understanding among the Olympians who control the destinies of these young things is most wanted, for it is then that divided loyalties play such havoc with their sensibilities. The discovery that some teacher or older schoolfellow has suddenly made an inroad upon the affection and admiration hitherto reserved for a father or mother, or both, would cause far less bewilderment and emotional strain than it often does now if the communications between school and home were kept open, and the opportunities for reserves or embarrassing explanations naturally removed.

When I meet a stupid parent, all my sympathies are with the school; and when I meet a stupid teacher, they are instantly transferred to the home. But when I see both parent and teacher, however excellent in their separate capacities, contending for the soul of the child who happens to be in their divided care, I congratulate myself that I can never again be a child. This disunion of interests, however, is in these days becoming so rare that, far more often, I find myself regretting that my own childhood lies far behind me and can never recur in that great future now opening out before us, when to be young will be very heaven for all children of all classes. It is only the back number with a good memory who can really appreciate the vision of that heaven to come.

English Elementary Schools & the New Education

A. J. LYNCH

THE Elementary Schools of England are just now undergoing a great administrative change. Roughly speaking, there are three types of State school—the Elementary, the Central (an extension of the Elementary, and corresponding somewhat to the American Junior High), and the Secondary. The first loses its pupils at 14 ; the second at about 16 ; while in the third pupils may remain till 18. Clear-cut though this arrangement appears to be, English educators were much disturbed about it partly because, as all three types were dealing with the child over eleven, there was obvious overlapping and waste ; and partly because there was a tendency to stabilize three types of schooling. This problem of the child over eleven was handed over seven years ago for consideration to the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education, and, after spending three years on it, the Committee issued the famous Hadow Report. Acting on its recommendations many education authorities in this country are arranging that *all* pupils of eleven shall pass on to some form of advanced instruction which shall be a normal continuation of the primary stage, and that such instruction shall be so arranged as to be suitable to ‘varying types of taste and ability’. This reorganization of educational arrangements, when completed, will constitute one of the greatest developments that has ever taken place in English education.

The implications are tremendous. If the system of post-primary education is to be successful it must correspond to the needs of the pupils. With the transition from childhood to adolescence, a boy or girl is often conscious of new powers and interests ; if education is to act as a stimulus—to be a thing significant and inspiring—it must appeal to those interests and cultivate those powers. Nothing short of a revolution is demanded in outlook and in school practice.

It is doubtful if the goal of releasing to constructive ends, the powers latent in every human

being—which is the goal of new education—will be reached by maintaining the stratification of schools and of scholars which is implied in the three existent types of school, or if it will not be reached best by providing ample alternative courses in the same school.

It is more than likely that in the new schools emphasis, for many children, will have to be placed on such subjects as drama, arts and crafts, music and dancing (why has dancing in schools almost completely gone over to the girls ?), science (biology ?), organized games, and work in workshops, e.g. mending a lock, or repairing a clock.

It would be idle to suppose, indeed it would be wrong to give the impression, that none of these things finds a place in many of the schools of England. They do. And to such schools may be applied, with slight modification, what Sir Percy Nunn said in his Presidential address to the English Section of the New Education Fellowship : ‘They are the people who are exploring new ways in education. And some of these ways take them a considerable distance away from the high road which the majority will always tend to follow. Sometimes, the majority, trudging along the high road, look at the people who have divagated widely, with a good deal of suspicion, yet the explorers are themselves moving within the national tradition, and cannot help doing so. They will, of course, affect it ; they will tend to modify the direction of the movement.’

What, then, are the explorers doing in the elementary schools of England ? What are they doing to modify the direction of the movement ? It is only possible, in a short article, to refer in general terms to a few of them.

Let us group them. There are those schools which adopt a definite scheme of organization such as the House System, the Prefect System, the Dalton Plan, and so on ; there are those which pursue some definite method of teaching such as Montessori, the Project Method, or Individual Work ; and there is that large num-

ber of schools, influenced in some way by each or all of these, which add to their curriculum one or more of the following—school journeys, appreciation of music, organized sport, craftwork, and creative work of all kinds. To those who believe that education means the provision of such an environment that a child may develop to the fullest extent his innate powers, these occasional, and almost casual, additions to the curriculum would appear to be of the very stuff of education. They are, slowly, permeating the elementary schools of England, and the process is full of hope.

The school journey movement is one of the most remarkable developments in English education during the last forty years. The longer journeys, which last from a week to three weeks or a month, are frequently made abroad, and the contribution they make to international understanding is immense and invaluable. From the purely educational standpoint the only fact that need be emphasized is that education is provided in a natural way under conditions which can be provided, to the same extent, in only the boarding school.

Much has been done in the elementary

schools in recent years to foster a love of music. The old grind with time and tune, and ear-tests in tonic solfa and old notation, has given place to musical appreciation. Folk-songs

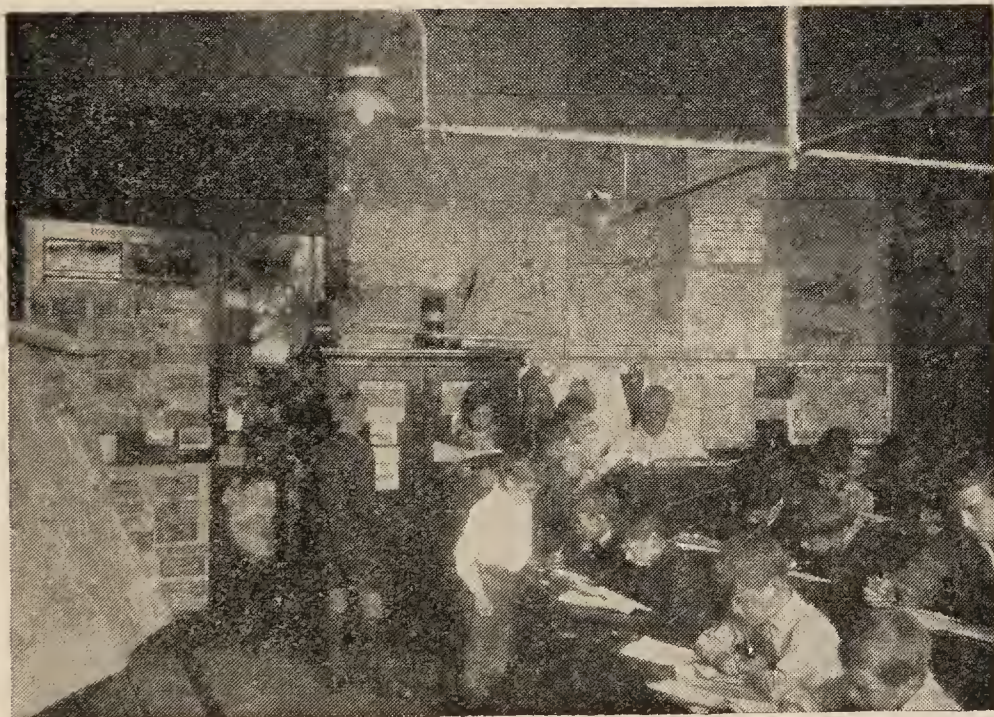
and dances have been revived, and, through the gramophone and radio, great masters are introduced to the pupils. The response has been remarkable. I am reminded of an ungainly and unkempt lad—who was entirely captured by the playing of Handel's 'Largo' during the school assembly, and who, a day or two afterwards, meeting in the street the player who had discovered to him his powers in one direction, said to her: 'I say, Miss, when are you coming to play to us again?' On a very much larger scale, results of this kind are realized through the fine work of Mr. Robert Mayer in his orchestral concerts for children. With a fine

first-class orchestra under the guidance of Dr. Macolm Sargent—born teacher as well as famous conductor—it is not uncommon to see two thousand elementary school children following and thoroughly enjoying a Beethoven Symphony.

Organized sport has entered the portals of every elementary school. Football (netball



Old Style



New Style

for girls), cricket, and swimming occupy a place in both indoor and outdoor school activities. Annual sports' meetings are a feature of individual schools. In one London suburb the champions of individual schools compete yearly for the honour of their school. No prizes whatever are offered; the honour of the school is the sole distinction.

In craftwork progress is being made. Under the name 'practical' there has always been the fear that this kind of work be regarded as fit only for those who are called dull and backward. It is a dangerous doctrine. Arts and crafts are creative, and have an æsthetic value; they are suitable in some degree to all children and form a most important educational medium. Leather work, metal work, and pottery, as well as wood work are practised in hundreds of our elementary schools.

With regard to methods of teaching, the influence of Froebel, Montessori, and John Dewey is universal. There is not an elementary school in this country that is not in some way affected by their ideas. This is not to say, however, that pure Montessori, or pure Project schools, exist in large numbers. They do not; but the principles of either of these educational philosophers are applied, often unconsciously, in whole or in part, in hundreds of schools.

Very much the same may be said about methods of school organization. The House system, based on the practice of the great Public Schools of England, is used in very many of the elementary schools, both for boys and girls. By this method of organization the school is divided vertically, instead of horizontally (sometimes as well as horizontally) so that each group contains pupils of all ages. Each group has its own captain. Rightly used, the system may be of great service to a school—the sense of companionship, and *esprit de corps*, and a friendly rivalry in work and sport, may be very valuable. But if, as may happen also with a system of Prefects, the captain becomes the spy of the head teacher, or if a spirit of superiority be engendered, the result may be very bad.

My own interest, for nearly ten years, has centred in the Dalton Plan, which I have always understood to be a method of organizing a school so as to bring about certain desirable

results. This is made easier by the institution of subject rooms. What these really are to a child may be seen in the illustrations in this article which point eloquently to the contrast between the new and the old.

The Dalton Plan is not recommended as the panacea of all the ills of educational life, but it has some definite advantages which are of great value. Discipline causes little anxiety, and the difficulty of marking time is overcome. I have dealt more fully with this subject elsewhere.

What I set out to do was to describe the relation of the English elementary schools to the new education. Perhaps I have said enough to show that there is movement among the dry bones, and that the diversity, which is the glory of the English schools, is all in the direction of the ideals for which the *New Era* in its new form will stand.

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Invincible Youth

CHARLES W. BAILEY

THE new Comparative Study of English and American Secondary Education which the University of Pennsylvania initiated last year, will bring a typical set of English Secondary Schools into close association with a corresponding number of American High Schools. Notes are being exchanged as to textbooks, curriculum, staff, out-of-school activities; this may lead to an exchange of pupils, and in any case a better understanding of each other's work and ideals is hoped for. A certain amount of information has been collected on this side and sent out to Philadelphia.

But on the eve of a visit to American Universities, one feels it is a pity that English education experiments and reforms are not better known in the United States.

We have heard of the new activity schools and their fascinating projects. The English attitude seems to be: 'Oh, we do all that sort of thing out of school hours'. The secondary schools here have no particular liking for new education or progressive schools. They shrink even more from what they think is implied by the term 'new psychology', and have not much faith—having been nourished on an island—in any educational experiments coming from the Continent. Where we follow, consciously or not, Froebel, Montessori, or Ferrière, is in our out-of-school activities, and you may best judge the influence the newer lights have on us when you see what is being done by various school societies as chronicled in the school magazines. Nearly all schools now run maga-

zines, usually issuing one number each term. Editing the school magazine is a task which adventurous schools have entrusted to pupils of capacity, often associated with members of the staff. In most cases the magazine is read in proof by some member of faculty and a

censorship exercised. We have always felt that, despite its risks, freedom is the best training for responsibility. No censorship has been exercised over the Holt School Magazine. The editors have always been pupils. No proof sheets are read by the staff. Once the foreman printer on his own initiative took out a swear-word.

The introduction of the House system of games gave the day school another link with the public school, and *News of the Houses* is a regular feature of school chronicles. The magazine also is the organ of the Former Pupils associations which link the present with the past pupils of the secondary school. From the school magazine one may now tell

the trend of the school's history, the successes of its individual pupils, the adventures of its former pupils, its hold on the *alumni*, its influence in the locality—unless it is a non-local school, then perhaps one ought to say 'its influence in the country'—its musical, dramatic, and social organizations and performances, its encouragement of originality and self-determination. All these things make school magazines an important field of educational enquiry and research, in which both England and America ought to be vitally interested. Parents of intending pupils read the school prospectus. They could gain much more, did they but know it, from a study of the school magazine.



LET HIM LIVE!

Ronald Hardy, Age 14
[Holt School, Liverpool]

Bound volumes of the magazine numbers are to be found as precious possessions on the bookshelves of Heads of schools. It is a matter of interest and pride to trace the beginnings of literary success in these school efforts.

It would be easy to prove that in every school there have been pupils whose first fine careless rapture of verse-making or joy in writing something which had vital interest to them, had received encouragement in the school magazine, and where illustrations have been encouraged the same may be said of other branches of creative art. The designs for the standing headings of the Holt School Magazine were drawn by a pupil who was later successful in gaining the *Prix de Rome* prize for architecture.

One of the simplest and most effective means of promoting goodwill between schools is by an interchange of school magazines. We have now a very long list of 'exchanges' and many important schools in America are included in our list. It is possible that something could be done to further this friendship by the *exchange of interesting blocks*. We reproduced by three-colour blocks a water-colour drawing of a senior pupil, and should be glad to exchange these three blocks for any other colour blocks used in a school magazine. The price of such blocks is at present somewhat against their general use for school magazine purposes. In fact it was only by co-operation with the *New Era* that our experiment was made possible.

The team spirit has been so successful with games, and we British have been so devoted to brawn and so fearful of brains, that in schools the artist, the poet, the musician, have been

relegated to that obscurity such people are supposed by the barbarians to adorn.

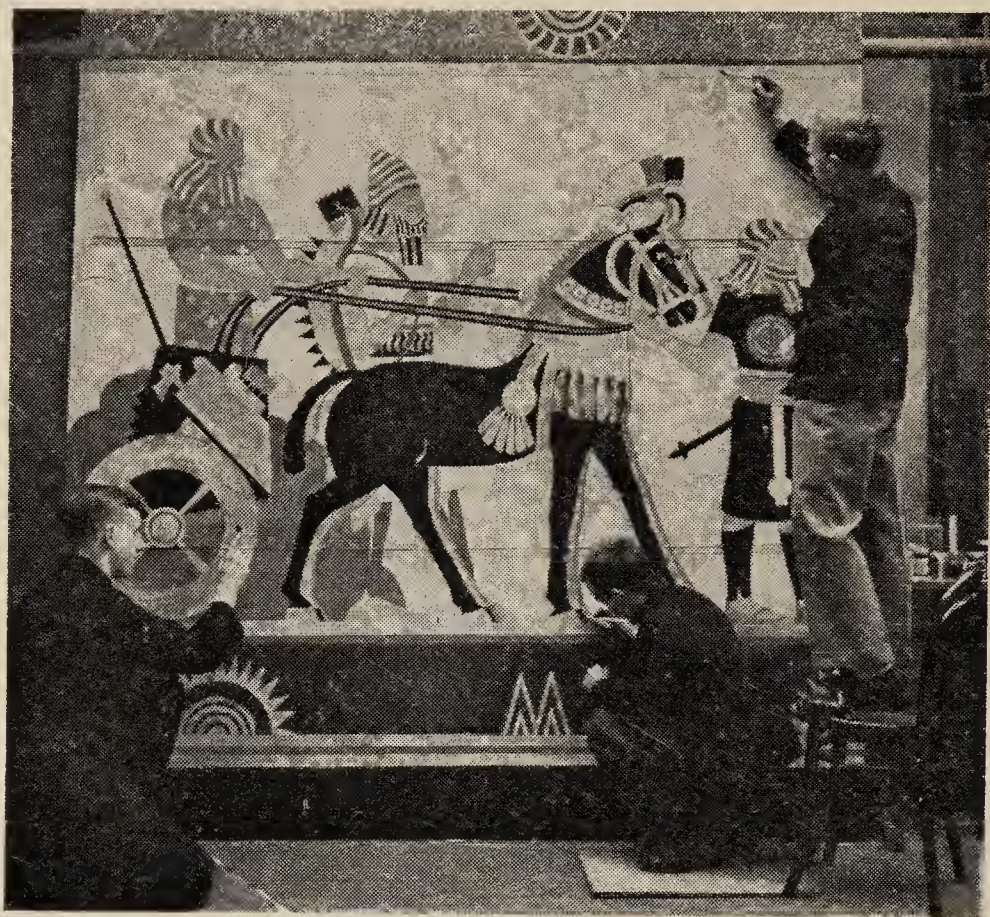
This attitude, however, is disappearing. The school magazine is not now a mere record of athletic prowess—the fellow who can write is welcomed by the Editor at least. The latter's lot, it is true, is somewhat difficult. He is re-

quired to be witty without personality and breezy without insolence. If he attacks anyone there will be trouble. If he doesn't, his paper will be dull. He probably oscillates between insult and apology. At any rate he and other literary-minded pupils get a good deal of fun out of their amateur efforts and not infrequently in consequence turn to it for their life's work.

Some schools carry out the creative activities connected with the

magazine so far as to print it as well as write it. One hopes that such efforts to give scope to mechanical, artistic and literary gifts may be more widely encouraged. This is an excellent example of team or project work.

The English Public School has, it has been pointed out, the great advantage that it does for so many hours a day at least take away its pupils from the reciprocity of instruction and gives them percipient education, something active and individual. It is just the difference between hearing music broadcasted and playing in the orchestra. Many of our schools have excellent orchestras and learn much in the way of artistic co-operation from them. One of my former colleagues, Mr. G. R. Hammond, who is making a study of out-of-school activities, writes: 'The most significant event in our nation's culture during the last few years is undoubtedly the performance of Bach's B-



Boys of the Holt School, Liverpool, painting their own scenery for the Greek Play

minor Mass at Oundle School in 1928. It is epoch making. It is worth a dozen Naval Conferences. It is the very stuff of life. That 500 school boys with the minimum of professional assistance should perform a work which is technically one of the most difficult choral compositions in existence, to say nothing of its religious passion, would seem little short of the miraculous. Almost the whole school takes part in the performances. . . . The orchestra of 50 are almost all boys—many of them actually play the XVIIIth century instruments for which Bach wrote. Nor does Oundle stand alone among public schools,' says Mr. Hammond; 'Westminster has a madrigal and orchestral society whose programme includes orchestral and chamber works composed by members of the school; the orchestra at Wellington plays Beethoven symphonies and concertos; and at Rugby the Inter-house Music Competition is so popular that almost all the Houses enter two teams and the programme of the 1929 competition included the Bach Chromatic Fantasia and Fugue (a solo work of enormous difficulty) a Holbrooke Trio and the Beethoven Wind Quartette. At a Fettes Concert movements from instrumental concertos were given by no fewer than 15 soloists. St. Paul's recently gave performances of choral works by Holst, one of the greatest living English composers, who teaches music at St. Paul's Girls' School. At this school recently an impromptu performance of Mozart's *Figaro* was given in the true Elizabethan manner, all singing their parts at sight and sitting round a table. Notable performances are also given at the Bedford High School for Girls where the Mozart Clarinet Quintette and a Brahms Quartette were recently played.' In nearly all the English magazines full notice is given of the musical and dramatic activities of the particular school. One will be keen to compare these with the performances in American schools.

An interesting case of the development of out-of-school activities comes from the Varn-dean School for Boys, Brighton. There, a scheme of what are known as elective classes is established. At certain times during the week the school splits up into various small study groups. Each boy may choose which of these groups he will join, and having made his

choice, must continue at work with that particular group for at least a year. The classes are made as informal as possible: there is no fixed syllabus and the boys themselves decide to some extent what lines they will work on. The classes are designed to give scope to all kinds of activity, especially craftsmanship. In addition, excursions are made to places of historical, archæological, geographical or industrial interest.

The Oldershaw Secondary School, Wallasey, has also been making experiments in the same direction, and Dr. Harold Rugg's interest in curriculum reconstruction is linking Wallasey with New York.

One agrees, modestly, with Dr. Rugg's view as expressed at the Elsinore Conference, that 'There has been no greater event in the history of recent education than the courageous way in which the new schools have gone outside the schools of pedagogy to find teachers for creative self-expression . . . a few, far-sighted teachers and administrators of progressive schools have seen that *only by the creative artist* can the *artist in the child* be discovered. Under his guidance a significant change is appearing in method in the arts. The artist-teacher does not impose technique too early; he stands behind the child waiting for him to reveal himself, trying to find out what is in this unique personality.' My experience with my colleagues, Mr. Sydney Merrills, and Mr. John Tobin, makes me readily support this view as applied to art and music. Some illustration of children's art work may be interesting to American schools.

One hopes also to interest the American schools in the making of home-made plays. Having, greatly daring, tackled the *Odyssey* and the *Iliad* as chronicle plays with *tableaux* and dances, one feels brave enough to suggest to our American cousins that much of Greek life and thought may be brought home to our pupils through the art of the theatre, and that the schools may even have something to tell the professional producer as to flood lighting, décor and joy in acting. One believes in the invincibility of youth. These are days when youth is taking all knowledge for its province. Let it be gently whispered that in Liverpool it is to invincible youth that we owe St. George's Hall and the great new Cathedral.

Questions from Parents and Teachers

Parents and teachers are sometimes faced with situations with which they feel they cannot adequately deal. You are invited to send such 'posers' to us, and when necessary we shall seek the advice of men and women whose work is the study of young children and adolescents. We ask that you send 1s. to cover cost of clerical work involved. Questions sent in by the middle of one month will be answered, if possible, by the beginning of the month following, and those of general interest will be published in the "New Era".

Why Won't She Eat?

If a refusal to eat appears suddenly in an ordinary healthy child, who has been behaving entirely normally, it is usually the outcome of an unrelated feeling of deprivation and helplessness. It very rarely has anything to do with the child's actual desire for food or need for food.

The kind of situation that arouses it is usually a degree of attention which has been paid to some other member of the family, and from which the child herself feels shut out. By refusing to eat the child usually can focus upon herself the whole attention of her mother or nurse, and sometimes of the whole family. In this way she gains the limelight and the notice that she so ardently craves, and the pangs of hunger are fully worth while as payment.

To deal with this difficulty it is wisest to take no notice at all; to put ordinary food in front of the child, leave it there for its normal time, then if it is not eaten, take it away without comment, and continue in the same way at the next meal.

In the meantime a means should be found of giving the child extra attention and allowing her in one way or another to feel herself important.

If an only child, temporary admission to the meals of a normal healthy family where everyone eats as a matter of course, is a very useful measure.

Why Does He Call Out at Night?

To a child's mind the practice of saying prayers at night in which occur petitions like 'Keep me safe till morning light', 'Guard me while I sleep', suggest that there are lurking terrors so much more awful than the chances of the day that special petitions have to be made to God to protect him from them.

To his logical mind, no obvious dangers exist in his cot in his nursery. Moreover, night is accompanied by strange and terrible shadows thrown by flickering lights carried by grown-ups who visit him when he is half asleep, or thrown by street lamps upon the wall. These dangers therefore can only be bogey dangers from a terrible unseen world against which no one can protect himself.

As grown-ups teach children to pray these prayers, and take them as a matter of course, the child also takes it as a matter of course that bogeys and like terrors do exist in the night, and therefore he never explains his fright.

Children have an amazing amount of courage, and will always endeavour to endure these half-grasped terrors until the last moment, and then when they can do so no longer, will call for some comforting, though uncomprehending, grown-up, and cover their terror by a prosaic request for a drink of water, or to have the pillows changed. The device is immaterial as long as it keeps the adult presence near long enough to give the child's spirit time to take hold.

MARGARET LOWENFELD
(Hon. Medical Director, The Children's Clinic,
Clarendon Road, London, W.11)

At the Age of 3½ She has suddenly become shy with Strangers? Can Anything be Done about it?

Very little, except to shield her from any strangers who try to force themselves upon her. You realise, do you not, that it is a natural outcome of normal development for a child to become shy at this time? It shows that the child is becoming an independent being, conscious of herself and therefore 'self-conscious'. This independence is inclined to be overwhelming to the child at first but should be recognised and cultivated, and above all, respected. If her shyness is the subject of constant comment it will probably sow seeds of bitterness, but if it is ignored or passed over lightly she will grow out of it naturally.

He is 6 and Flies into a Violent Temper when He is Thwarted. What Ought I to do?

Have you shown that his tempers distress you? Has he found that violent temper is a means of making you give in to him? If you want to cure him it is wise to hide any feelings of distress you may have and you will need to show him that no amount of temper will succeed in getting him what he wants. If you will appear indifferent and prove that temper does not pay the battle will soon be won. Do not upbraid him when he recovers, but he is not too young to see reason and would probably be greatly helped by a friendly chat over the situation when he is in a happy frame of mind. Finally, be sure to be careful to avoid occasions, as much as possible, which are likely to arouse his anger, especially until the habit is broken.

E. MILDRED NEVILL
(Psychologist, Frensham Heights School; Psychology
Lecturer, Clapham Training College)

Parent-Teacher Co-operation in England

FOR a number of years individual parent-teacher circles, parents' unions, and child study circles, have been developing in England, often as individual units in connection with a particular school or group of schools. In 1929 a Home and School Council was formed to try to co-ordinate these different movements and stimulate the growth throughout the country of parent-teacher co-operation, parent education and child study. The Council is affiliated to the International Federation of Home and School and is thus part of a world movement.

Many who read this issue of the *New Era* may feel that they would like to initiate this work in the school their children attend or in which their work lies. The Council are planning an Autumn course for the training of leaders of study and parent-teacher groups.

The Council has been fortunate in obtaining as its first President Miss Ishbel MacDonald, whose deep interest in social questions is well known, and who bases her own social work on prevention rather than on cure.

The societies the subjects of these short notes are only a few representative of the movement as a whole. Their addresses, as well as information and advice on starting groups, may be obtained from the Hon. Secretary, Home and

School Council, 11 Tavistock Square, W.C.1.

One of the principal objects of the *Parents' National Educational Union* is to assist parents of all classes to a better understanding of education in all its aspects, and parents and teachers meet here on the same ground. The Correspondence School issues a syllabus of work each term; examination questions follow and the answers are sent up to Headquarters to be marked and commented on. There is also a leaflet of occupations for children under school age.



MISS ISHBEL MACDONALD

The *Parents' Association* studies, *inter alia*, approved educational experience from other countries and sources; adequate representation to the proper quarter from an impersonal source of parents' criticism of fees, diet, care of health, &c.; a more general curriculum without specialization, especially for younger children.

The Wives' Fellowship was started during the war when it was felt that 'There are few people upon whom the problems and demands of life press more heavily and insistently than upon the younger wives and mothers of the educated classes'. Its objects are: to band together young wives and mothers for the purpose of prayer and mutual fellowship; to uphold the highest Christian ideals of marriage and motherhood; to gain help in the problems of moral and

religious education. The Fellowship has many active branches all over the Empire.

The *Parents' Union, Hornsey County School, London, N.4.* This kind of co-operation exists between the home and many Secondary schools. Parents can join as members or as life members, and the teaching staff and a few others are admitted to honorary membership. Parents of all new pupils are invited to meet the Head Master and the staff, and to see the school, at the beginning of the school year. The activities come under three heads : educational, educational and recreational, and recreational.

The *Parents' Circle of St. Christopher School, Letchworth, Hertfordshire*, is illustrative of many such circles organized round private schools, and consists of a committee of parents and staff elected annually. Three meetings are held each term. The first part of the evening is of a social character, when problems connected with individual children can be discussed. Later an opportunity is given to parents to ask questions connected with problems of organization and points of general interest ; these are sympathetically heard and answered. A lecture or talk usually follows, given either by an outside specialist, a parent or a member of the staff.

In a boarding school it is not so easy to have a parents' circle, but an effective substitute may take the form, as at *Abinger Hill Preparatory School, Surrey*, of a report to be filled in by parents at the end of each holiday period. It asks for the parents' comments on health, on school work, on books read in the holidays and on character traits, and invites frank suggestions and criticisms.

The *Waller Road Girls' School (Elementary), New Cross, London, S.E.14*, has a very flourishing Parents' Association. During the year it holds social gatherings and 'open' nights when parents come to see the school and the children's work. The lectures are educational : School Clinics ; Child Guidance ; Education Rate ; Health, &c. The parents undertake care-work in the schools of the Borough, and take parties of children to places of educational interest

on Saturday mornings, both parents and children being given papers of questions for which they must find the answers. Parents hold all offices in the Association except those of Hon. and Asst. Secretary, which are filled by the Headmistress and one of her staff.

The *Child Study Society* exists for the purpose of scientific study of the mental and physical condition of children and of educational methods with a view to gaining greater insight into child-nature and securing more sympathetic and scientific methods of training the young.

The *Tavistock Square Clinic* has a department for nervous and difficult children, for in treating adults it was discovered that almost every nervous disorder could be traced back to some mishandling or faulty environment during early years. Treatment is based on the re-education of the child and of his parents, and thus on an alteration of the environment. The observation nursery which has been in operation for the past year has proved of great value to doctors treating cases and to students.

The *Clarendon Road Children's Clinic* exists for the observation and treatment of nervous and delicate children. All work centres round the playroom. Each child is given full medical examination. All conversations with the parents are undertaken with the knowledge of the child, and while they remain within easy access. Psychological examination is by means of play in the playroom, and conversations between the children and the physician in charge.

The *Child Guidance Clinic* works in close co-operation with the educational service and the school medical service of the London County Council. Children are sent to the Clinic with the consent of their parents, and young children are received from child welfare centres. The Clinic, in co-operation with the National Institute of Industrial Psychology, also deals with cases referred for vocational guidance.

At these three Clinics there are lectures and training courses to help parents and teachers in their work.

Summer Schools & Conferences

EUROPE

- Geneva School of International Studies, 14 JULY TO END OF SEPTEMBER. *Prof. Alfred Zimmern, 23-bis rue Balzac, Paris*
- League of Nations Union Junior Summer School (boys and girls over 16 years), 7-14 AUGUST, Geneva. *League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.1.*
- League of Nations Institute of Intellectual Co-operation have compiled a brochure, HOLIDAY COURSES IN EUROPE, 1930, published in English, French and German. Obtainable from Librairie Vuibert, 63 Boulevard St.-Germain, Paris V, 5 francs; Alfred Lorentz, Kurprinzstrasse 10, Leipzig, 1 mark; Oxford University Press, Warwick Square, London, E.C.4, 1 shilling; World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston, Mass., 50 cents.
- Rein Summer School, 2-16 AUGUST, Jena, Germany. *Frl. Clara Blomeyer, Carl-Zeiss-Platz 3, Jena.*
- Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, 25 JULY-10 AUGUST, Ribeauville, Alsace, and 20 AUGUST-5 SEPTEMBER, Sofia, Bulgaria. *12 rue de Vieux-College, Geneva.*

GREAT BRITAIN

- English Summer School for Foreign Students, 7-28 JULY, Oxford. *F. H. Cutcliffe, 45 Broad Street, Oxford.*
- Froebel Society, 4-16 AUGUST, Maria Grey Training College, Salusbury Road, Brondesbury, London, N.W.6. *General Organiser.*
- London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics, 3-16 AUGUST, Brighton, England. *London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics, 13 Store Street, London, W.C.1.*

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

- Pan-Pacific Women's Conference, 9-22 AUGUST, Honolulu, Hawaii. *Mrs. Swanzy, Honolulu.*

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue (see page 31)

THE NEW EDUCATION IN THE GERMAN REPUBLIC
THE TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS IN GERMANY
THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE ADOLESCENT
LEAGUE OF NATIONS EDUCATIONAL SURVEY
WHAT MAKES UP MY MIND ON INTERNATIONAL QUESTIONS
A BOOK OF LINCOLNSHIRE VERSE
THE PRIMARY, and THE INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL CHILD, and
NATURE STUDY IN THE SCHOOL

Books Received

- HUMAN HISTORY. *G. Elliott Smith, Litt.D., F.R.S., Professor of Anatomy in the University of London.*
Jonathan Cape, 21s. (cf. p. 18)
- AN INTRODUCTION TO CHILD STUDY. *Ruth Strang, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, U.S.A.*
Macmillans, 12s. 6d.
- THE TEACHER'S MANY PARTS. *Sir John Adams, sometime Professor of Education in the University of London.*
University of London Press, 6s.
- TALKS TO PARENTS AND TEACHERS. *Homer Lane. George Allen and Unwin. Cheaper Edition, 3s. 6d.*
- CATTELL GROUP INTELLIGENCE SCALE. *Dr. R. B. Cattell.* *Harrap, 3s. 6d.*
- A DIRECTORY OF SOCIETIES AND ORGANIZATIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN CONCERNED WITH THE STUDY OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS. *Compiled by Stephen A. Heald. With an introduction by Sir William Beveridge. The Royal Institute of International Affairs, 10 St. James's Square, London, S.W.1. 1s. 6d.*

International Notes

Dr. W. E. Blatz, Director of St. George's School of Child Study, and of the Mental Hygiene Association, Toronto, and Professor Jean Piaget, Director of the Bureau International d'Education, Geneva, were invited to London in May and June by the N.E.F., and lectured under the auspices of the University of London, the Home and School Council, and the London Day Training College. Dr. Blatz lectured on 'Parental Responsibilities in Child Training', and 'An Outline of Child Motivation', and Professor Piaget on '*La Logique chez l'Enfant*' and '*Jugement moral chez l'Enfant*'. ❀

Dr. William Boyd, Head of the Education Department, University of Glasgow, leaves in September for Teachers College, University of Columbia, New York City, to spend a year there as outside lecturer. Professor William McClelland, University of St. Andrew's, Scotland, goes at the same time also to Teachers College for one term as outside lecturer. ❀

We very much regret to say that Miss Dorothy Matthews, who so greatly assisted, as Secretary, in building up the English Section of the Fellowship, has had to leave on account of ill-health. She also was largely instrumental in launching the Home and School Council, affiliated to the International Federation of Home and School. ❀

In connection with the Annual Conference of the Progressive Education Association held in Washington in April, an international luncheon was arranged to celebrate the affiliation of the Association and the Fellowship. The speakers were Dr. Harold Rugg, Dr. Randall J. Condon, Dr. W. Carson Ryan, Mr. Burton P. Fowler and Mrs. Beatrice Ensor. The Conference was most successful. There was a large attendance, and the general theme was the Progressive School and the practice of modern education. ❀

Australia

Various Groups of the Fellowship have been formed in different States on the same plan as that adopted in Canada. Groups have been formed in Perth, Western Australia—Mr. E. A. Coleman, Education Offices; Burwood, N.S.W.—Miss M. Lamond, 12 Minna Street; Greenslopes, S. Brisbane—Miss M. Low, Glenearn, Corner Kirkland Avenue and Cornwall Street. ❀

Canada

During her American tour Mrs. Ensor travelled through Canada, and on the advice of Canadian friends it was decided not to attempt to form a Section of the Fellowship in Canada at this stage, but to form Groups in the various Provinces. These later may federate to form a Section. The formation

of Groups at first, rather than a Section, is very important owing to the size of the Dominion, and of the Provinces, which mean considerable isolation at first in the work. Large numbers of people are supporting the movement, which it is hoped will develop steadily, and prove a close link with Great Britain. Canadian friends visiting Britain are cordially invited to make use of Headquarters in London, and through it of the different European Sections. Groups have been formed in Canada in Victoria, B.C.—Sec.: Miss Annie T. Riddell, Box 488, Post Office; Vancouver, B.C.—Sec.: Mrs. E. Mahon, 1370 Burnaby Street; Calgary, Alta.—Sec.: Mr. M. L. Watts, 514 Thirteenth Avenue, N.E.; Winnipeg, Man.—Sec.: Miss Millard, Principal of Rupert Island School, and Mrs. E. Layton, 530 River Avenue; Toronto, Ont.—Miss M. Lord, Regal Road School; Montreal, P.Q.—Mr. J. M. C. Duckworth, Y.M.C.A., 1441 Drummond Street; Halifax, N.S.—Pres., Dr. H. F. Munro, Supt. of Education, Education Offices. ❀

India

Owing to pressure of business at Headquarters and the alteration of the *New Era* from a quarterly to a monthly publication, Mrs. Ensor has been compelled to postpone her visit to India, which she had planned for this autumn. The visit will now probably take place in the early autumn of 1931. ❀

News of a very interesting proposed experiment comes from New York City. This is to take so many pairs of 'identical' twins, i.e. same sex and almost exact mental and physical images of each other, and educate them differently. One of each pair will be educated according to advanced methods, and the other by ordinary methods. The results will be compared from time to time. ❀

The Child Guidance Council, 7, Buckingham Palace Gardens, London, S.W.1, offers six scholarships of £181 10s. od., tenable by students taking the Mental Health Course of the London School of Economics and Political Science, to assist candidates who would otherwise, for financial reasons, be unable to take the Course. The scholarships are open to those wishing to undertake social work for children or adults, hospital almoners, probation officers, etc. Information from the Secretary, Child Guidance Council. ❀

Miss Margaret McMillan, the pioneer in England of the Nursery School movement, has been created a Companion of Honour of the Order of the British Empire as a recognition of her wonderful work in the Rachel McMillan Nursery School in Deptford, London. ❀

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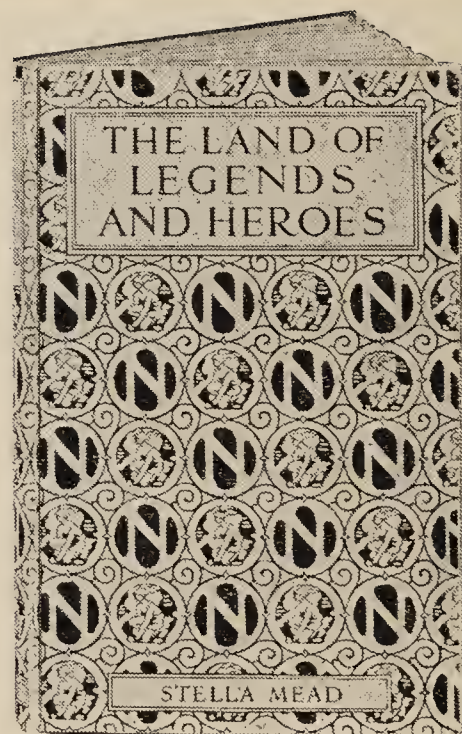
By STELLA MEAD and WENTWORTH HILL, M.A.

For true education it is of the very highest importance that children should realise at the earliest possible moment that books are both pleasant and valuable, and that their reading is a genuine source of joy and interest. From the very first moment that children use a book intended for their own reading this aim must have the greatest possible weight attached to it. Reading and the use of English must be introduced to them as pleasures that are naturally enjoyable.

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Book Reviews

The New Education in the German Republic.
By Thomas Alexander and Beryl Parker. John Day, New York. \$4.00.

There are a number of publications dealing with individual progressive schools in Germany; but there was no complete picture of German methods showing their special characteristics. This picture, now produced by two Americans who know German schools well, will be welcomed by all to whom educational progress in Germany is significant.

It is probable that pedagogical reform in Germany has not produced as many new ways in method and organization as it has in other countries, noticeably in America. German reformers have been pitted against the solid barrier of traditional, protected school policy. Yet there has been a fundamental alteration in the spirit informing the generality of German schools. In the first part of their book Alexander and Parker draw attention to the important movements and developments that have left their mark on all State and secondary schools: the youth movement, the wander movement, hiking, school country homes, physical culture, artistic self-expression. These, during the last thirty years—at first slowly and in the face of strong opposition from education authorities, but since the War with gathering and irresistible impetus—have altered the school atmosphere to the last particular, and their influence may be traced in the most isolated rural school.

In the second part of the book, the vocational and community schools, a few of the secondary schools, the country home schools, the activity schools, and the folk high schools, are listed as the pioneers in this new pedagogical movement, and their various characteristics enumerated. And here, I think, the authors have erred in not emphasizing enough the importance of the country home schools and activity schools. These not only represent the new spirit in education, but, together with the youth movement and the new movements in art, actually created it.

In the third part of the book the authors give a picture of the German central school, its curriculum and methods of selection, of the new type of teacher, and of the new ideals in education as cultural factors. They draw critical attention to a number of questions that so far have not received a satisfactory solution. And their conclusion is as follows:

'In the history of public education there is no parallel to the German school experiments. Her schools have run the entire gamut from rigid conservatism to extreme radicalism within one decade. Educators elsewhere can clarify their own problems by reflecting on the German experiments, which were conducted in the white heat of "national self-appraisal". Out of the crucible of war and revolution has come the new goal, Humanity, pointed out by the Prussian Minister of Education as the last and most exalted educational ideal which stands before the future citizen of the German Republic.'

Franz Hilker

The Training of Elementary Teachers in Germany. *By Thomas Alexander. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, New York City.*

The basis and presupposition of all progressive school work is the existence of a teaching body thoroughly trained in the spirit of the new education. German school reform, then, after the war, began with the abolition of the old and inadequate teacher training colleges and the creation of new training centres for folk school teachers. It is laid down in the new German constitution that these training centres must be of a university character. Individual German States fulfilled these demands of the teaching profession within a short time. They have indeed pursued different ways in arriving at their goal, for some supplied the necessary training through studies at a university over a period of six terms, while in other States (Prussia included) special 'pedagogical academies' provided it by a four-term training of a university character.

Professor Thomas Alexander, who knows German school life exceedingly well, and is an eager supporter of American teacher training of a university character, has gathered together in this excellent book all the different forms of teacher training in Germany. He begins with a character sketch of the old seminary, and proceeds then through the modern methods of the different German States. The description is made very clear by the detailed reproduction of the curricula of individual pedagogical academies and institutes. There are explanations of the methods of practical introduction to teaching, examinations, and posts, and information about salaries. Finally, Professor Alexander describes the post-graduate education of the working teacher. At the end of the book there is an excellent bibliography of the most important German books, periodicals and essays dealing with the reform of teacher training in Germany.

Franz Hilker

The Psychology of the Adolescent. *By Leta S. Hollingworth. With an appreciation by Dr. G. W. Kimmins. Partridge. 6s.*

Dr. Kimmins has secured a notable addition to his *Home and School Library*—the kind of volume all parents and teachers should have digested by the time their children grow to adolescence. Like all that comes from Teachers College this is a carefully documented, well-balanced and sweetly reasonable book, even where its conclusions are radical.

It begins with a description of tribal initiation and its ceremonies, illustrating in an extreme form the process of psychological weaning from parents and home which is the supreme need of this period. Many examples are given of the harm done by the possessive or dominating parent. An excellent chapter on sex hygiene refers most of the trouble arising at this period to society's attempt to retard or ignore the development of the sexual instincts owing to the economic difficulties of early marriage.

It is unfortunately marred by a short and quite misleading reference to masturbation, one of the chief sexual problems of the growing boy. The writer shows us the adolescent's need of building up a unified self by the subordination of his major impulses to a centralizing purpose, and leaves us more than ever convinced that if society continues to ignore his need for rational help in solving his problems, the result will be an increase in his inadequacy and in his tendency to nervous breakdown when he grows to manhood. *W. Rawson*

A Book of Lincolnshire Verse. *Compiled by Members of the Poetry Club, King Edward VI Girls' Grammar School, Louth. Poetry Society, London.* 2s. 6d.

This anthology is a most interesting piece of pioneer work about which there is certainly nothing amateurish. It is obvious that much real research and much careful thought have gone towards its production; few readers will have realised before that there were so many poets in Lincolnshire. The poems of the girls themselves show some pleasing verse experiments, a variety both of subject and of treatment, and some extraordinarily apt and vivid pictures of local landscapes with their 'wind-swept shifting sand-dunes'. The work of the girls is no mean contribution to the poetry of Lincolnshire.

Dorothy M. Easton

The Primary School Child ; The Intermediate School Child ; Nature Study in the School. *By Vilhelm Rasmussen. Glydendal, Copenhagen. Brentano, London.* 5s. each.

Each of these books consists of a simple, direct, artless, sincere account of what actually occurred in the relations between teacher and child. Their special merit lies in this absolute frankness, and their absence of literary 'make-up' becomes an asset. The sex question is freely handled in all three. Co-education is well and favourably discussed in the second of the books. 'The main point is that co-educated children live in a normal state of sexual equilibrium,' he sums up. He tells a rather good tale of the boy of ten who said: 'Storks can't bring little children, because my baby brother arrived in the winter when the storks are not here'. If in places the author seems to deal with the obvious, this must be allowed to him as part of his method of telling the plain, unvarnished tale. The stamp of truth is everywhere, in these books. *W. Platt*

What makes up my Mind on International Questions : *Five Outlines for Leaders and Members of Discussion Groups. The Inquiry, New York City. Association Press, and the Woman's Press, New York City.*

This is intended for Americans with their special emigration problems, but could easily be adapted to the use of other nations, especially, perhaps, the British. (But it seems a pity that the first examples of mental pictures reflect rather unfortunately on a public personage.) 'The first step in discussion is to find out what experience and thinking lie back of an attitude strongly held.' (p. 32). The leader should

not ask members of his group 'Why they voted as they did,' in a test paper. 'Ask them rather *what experience* of their own or of their friends has led them to think as they do.' *Arthur St. John*

Educational Survey, Volume I, No. 2, January 1930. *Secretariat of the League of Nations, Geneva.* 2s. \$0.50.

Here is recorded some of the quiet, but surely very important and hope-inspiring work that is being done by, and under the inspiration of, the League of Nations, with the aim of cultivating in the rising generation, peacefulness and an international attitude. We read how textbooks and explanatory leaflets are distributed for the use of teachers and training colleges; how the League of Nations is introduced as a subject into curricula, and is 'brought into many lessons—even arithmetic being constantly used for that purpose' (p. 97). Perhaps more useful and important still are the camps in which older boys and girls discuss their problems, play and ramble together and cultivate friendship and unity in candid diversity. Surely not less so are the interchanges of school children, introduced into schools and homes, and shown some of the sights and public life of a foreign country. 'The personal relations established by our pupils in England and by English boys in Berlin', writes Dr. Karsen (p. 29), 'have led to many lasting friendships, as is shown by the large exchange of letters.' *Arthur St. John*

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

AUGUST! School books have been flung aside, examinations forgotten and we are now on our way to the sea, moors and mountains. Only a day or two ago the station platforms were scenes of joyous excitement and happy reunion. Animated faces, a medley of school caps, tuck-boxes and cricket bats told the non-school world that term was over. In the course of a few days classrooms had been emptied, school life disconnected and family life once more switched on. Yet why is it that, despite all the present excitement and happiness, many parents and children will be secretly glad when the holidays are over? Probably because we adults have a wrong conception of what a holiday can be. We are so apt to think of it as a period in which children should do nothing, and so prone to forget (until the holidays are half over!) that inactivity ends in boredom.

Attitudes to Work and Play

If education is to be a continuous process of all-round development, there should be no sudden jerks and breaks between school and home. As long as we regard school as a place for work and disciplinary training, and home as a place for play and freedom, we are putting the child's two worlds in opposition one to the other. Through our own wrong attitude we are thus making work the antithesis of play. This makes for a wrong contrast between school work and life. The wise parent will arrange that there shall be no such arbitrary division, and that his child's life, whether lived at home or in school, is a time of full adventurous living. In the right type of school, the life resembles a sensible holiday. By an equally judicious planning for the holidays, these con-

tinue the fun and interest of living. Education does not mean a term of school work unrelated to life to be followed by a holiday of 'hanging round', but rather a process of purposeful activity in both home and school.

How many thousands of families spend their holidays on the same crowded beach year after year! It is of course excellent to lie in the sun, to bathe and laze and day-dream, but this is only one aspect of what a holiday should mean. Change of scene, fresh surroundings and interests are as essential to re-creation as are rest and relaxation. Small children of their own accord plan purposeful activity. They waste no time in building their dream-castles, in hoisting the flag and guarding their fort against rival encampments, but when this stage is outgrown, parents need to help them to plan other means of self-expression. In this age of mechanical production, when we are confronted by the prospect of ever shorter hours of labour, this kind of right training for leisure is of paramount importance.

Educative Value of Travel

Travel is always an education. It makes children realise the need of learning a foreign language; it broadens their vision and leads them to understand that many nationalities, customs and modes of living go to make up the world of which they are a part. Yet even those of us who travel with our children fail to make the most of our opportunities. We rest content with moving from hotel to hotel, with 'doing the sights' and with dragging our children round to a number of churches, galleries and museums—only, in all probability, to give them a distaste for old architecture and pictures for the rest of their life! Such visits are a mere

varnish of culture. They are meaningless to the children, and of no educational value.

In this issue we have tried to suggest ways in which holidays can be made purposeful and stimulating. Readers will be interested in Mrs. Emmet's account of a year in Europe with her children, and it will give many parents and teachers fresh ideas as to how, *with their children*, they can make a new approach to the study of history. What a difference there is between going to see a castle because it is one of the sights and going to explore it because it is part of a living scheme of interest!

This method, when parents and children enjoy and explore together, does not necessarily mean expensive holidays. Similar methods can be adopted for enjoying the countryside near at home. A walking tour in Wales, a week on the moors, a day in an old historic town, can all be made occasions for mental and emotional enrichment. Most good schools now plan organized school journeys. We have only to read Mr. Howard's article describing his time in France to be infected with the *joie de vivre* of vital living such as the Addey and Stanhope children experienced last Easter. A number of schools are introducing similar journeys in term time. The Decroly School in Brussels organizes a week's travel (at least) at the end of each school year of work. These journeys fit into the schemes of study in such a way that children who have been studying the industries of their country actually go to see the different kinds of factories manufacturing the goods. Those who have been studying shipping, imports and exports, go down to the docks and spend several days on board different kinds of cargo vessels, watching incoming and outgoing ships, and getting a very real, first-hand knowledge of tariffs, methods of transport, etc. Thus work has become play, and play work.

Danger lurks in everything. Parents who calculate each action in terms of educational value will do more harm than good. The important thing is to be alert to possibilities and to seize them as they arise. If we can only catch the contagious enthusiasm of our children and enter into their conspiracies of curiosity and fun and enjoyment, we can rest assured

that worth while activities will take care of themselves.

Re-creation

Teachers know how hard it is to keep strung up to this pitch of vitality, but the public are slow to realize that teachers *need* long holidays. In America many teachers are entitled to a Sabbatical year's rest on full pay after each six years of service. This is an excellent scheme and we look forward to its adoption in other countries. Teachers are in danger of losing their freshness and of becoming narrow in outlook. It is essential that they should receive adequate salaries and holidays to enable them to *live* and experience life outside the classroom. There are two types of teacher. There are those who think in terms of subject matter and of getting it over to their class, and there are those who see through the eyes of their children. The latter are the real educators. These understand that we grow and build up personality by a blend of mental, emotional and physical activity. They recognise the child's right to happiness and, too, his right to become himself.

THE SEPTEMBER ISSUE

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PARENT EDUCATION

A. A. Milne on the Right to Happiness

6 I KNOW very little about anything, and nothing about education', said Mr. A. A. Milne at an interview he very kindly granted the *New Era*, 'but I do know I want Christopher Robin to be happy.' He filled his pipe slowly and spoke musingly. 'I don't want ever to expect him, while he is a child, to do things that will make him unhappy. For happiness is so great a thing. It means so much to have had a happy childhood—to have it to look back on from the misery in the world that one cannot escape. All children's lives ought to be



'Christopher Robin'

happy; they should be saved from feeling secretly miserable about anything they have to do. I think,' he said, with a quick upward glance of his bright, keen blue eyes, 'fathers and mothers should study more the happiness of their children. And they should treat them as on an equality with themselves, as reasonable beings. For a child is a reasonable being—so reasonable that he makes his father feel most unreasonable at times, and futile. Some "Why's" are so difficult to answer. You may say: "I think you had better do such-and-such a thing." And the child says: "Why must I"? It's difficult to give a reason he can understand, yet it's fatal to say, for instance: "Because other people won't like you if you don't". Ten to one he'll say: "I don't want other boys to like me; I don't care if they don't". He stopped, smiling darkly at Memory, apparently lurking in the tiny sunny paved court of the Chelsea garden.

'Yes,' prompted his interlocutor, 'and when Christopher Robin says, "I don't care if they don't," what do you say'? 'I? Oh, I gener-

ally get round it! Perhaps I say, "Very well", and leave it at that—don't make him do it—knowing that life will make him do it, will make him see that he *must* do it. If you are so foolish as to say: "Because I tell you you must", you instantly feel how futile you sound—and are—to your child. You know that's no reason, and your child knows it too.

'After all, why *should* a parent say what his child is or is not to do? You don't know what's going on in his mind; you really don't know how he sees things. And he generally has good

reasons, from his point of view, for what he does. You must look at things from his point of view as well as from your own, and tell him where you think he's wrong. So we always try not to make Christopher Robin do what he does not want to do—within reason, of course. We have always treated him as we should treat a grown-up person. He has taken part in our lives. We play grown-up games with him, paper games, and cards. And he has always had plenty of companions.

'It is not, I think, what parents say that matters, but what they do and are, what their attitude is to each other, what their attitude to their children is. No matter what they *say*, if they feel differently, children know it, and they always go by what they feel is the truth in adults: they know insincerity at once by the "feel" of it.

'At home, we have never definitely "educated" Christopher Robin. He has gone to a kindergarten and then to a preparatory school. But my father was a schoolmaster, and teaching interests me, so it is inevitable that the

boy should come within that interest. Many fathers do not spend enough time with their children; they come home late and tired, and the children are asleep. It is a great pity. I always made a point of going up to see Christopher Robin when he was in bed, and instead of a story I taught him something. I used to take him up a problem in Euclid or Algebra, and I never found that he was anything but interested. I have always let him go as far ahead in a subject as he wished to. I don't believe in holding back any more than in pressing on. He may go ahead with anything he is interested in as long and as quickly as he likes.

'There is no doubt that individual teaching is the best, but it can't be easy to give individual attention to twenty different children. Frankly, I don't see how teachers do it. The old way was to go for the average boy in a class; the ones below were more or less left, and the ones above were bored. The new way is infinitely better. But I don't see how teachers manage all the extra work involved. And I know of one "modern" school where things seem to be made too easy for the boys. Children need difficult and hard things to do; they need to face and overcome; and in the new education there is that danger of making boys, especially, soft.

'Children learn a good deal by themselves. There are very few subjects that *require* to be taught. History, for instance, can be imbibed from literature, at any rate as much of it as is necessary for all ordinary purposes, very much more readily than from class textbooks. Children should have access to all the books in their parents' library; they themselves will pick out those necessary for each successive stage of development. Answer all questions, no matter what they are. Let children learn through trying and experiencing and living. That is education.

'My boy is very keen on games, and is of a mathematical turn of mind, but my fondest hope is that he will be an artist. At the age of seven when he had never had any drawing lessons, he did one or two sketches of me.' Here Mr. Milne produced three—one could not call them excellent likenesses, but they were extraordinarily true in perspective, and

showed penetration. For a child of seven to attempt and achieve a three-quarter face sketch of a man smoking a pipe, at all, let alone reach a high standard, showed talent of no mean order. Acting on expert advice, Mr. Milne would not allow drawing to be taught the boy, and for the time being the gift seems to be in abeyance.

'Punishment and correction, too,' continued Mr. Milne, 'are very difficult problems for parents. Why do we punish? Generally because the child does something that upsets us or goes against our ideas—though it doesn't upset him or go against his ideas. With Christopher Robin I find that reasoning, and showing where and how and why it is better to do as we think he should do, is the most effective way of avoiding having to punish. And fear—that is another problem. Fear does come into children's lives, no matter how careful one is not to frighten and to see that nurses and others do not frighten. When one comes to think of it, it is a perfectly ludicrous and impossible situation to be a parent, and I don't see how any of us carry it through!

'People pity only children and say they are unhappy. But it is all nonsense—provided, of course, the parents are normally intelligent people, and give the only child their own companionship and the companionship of other children. An only child seems to me to stand a better chance of being treated as, and of being, a reasonable person, than a child who is one of a family, for he finds his level earlier with grown-ups, as well as finding it with companions of his own age. Children nowadays are so different from what they used to be twenty or thirty years ago. It is, I think, the result of more intelligent education. Friends told me I was brave to send Christopher Robin away to school; that he would be "ragged" and have a bad time. But nothing of the sort has happened. The other boys don't "rag" him; they are slightly interested to know who he is—that is all. And he is happy, though it is his first time away from home.

'This brings me back to what I said at first: it is the duty of parents to make and keep their children happy. Nothing else matters.'

A Year in Europe

BEULAH H. EMMET

THIS account of a year's travel with my children in Europe is a plea for travel during the adventurous years when a child's world is still that of the knight and explorer, before adolescence comes and interests shift and thoughts turn inward. Not that the mental picture gained by the child is that of the adult, but that there exists a picture gained through personal experience which catches more lights and depths as knowledge and understanding grow. If I ask you to travel I ask you also to be wise in how you travel. I can only tell you how we did it and leave you to better it.

As the children had come to the ages of nine, eleven and twelve, now was the time to travel—but how and where? How—somehow—to people their world with some other nation than their own. I was searching for a motive to build on, for a definite interest that would carry us across the sea. The solution came unexpectedly: the Navy Department asked if my husband would go to the Hague as Naval attaché. So 'on duty bound' we all set forth adventuring.

It was interesting to watch the children take hold of their environment. Immediately it was a language interest, tried on anyone and everyone. Simultaneously came the interest in background. Costumes and brass-trimmed carts, excursions with the rest of the Dutch world on bicycles, licensed as are our motor-cars. Bicycling with us is a game, not a means of



'Aknahton'

travel. But most important of all were the waterways and dykes. For some unexplained reason 'the water in the canals was fresh and we were living sixteen feet below sea level. So we went to the locks and saw the waters of the old Rhine emptied into the sea at low tide. We went to the history of the Siege of Harlem and the letting in of the waters.

Once the fuse of history was lighted, the children left us far behind. I asked them one day what they wanted to do and the answer came in chorus: 'Go to Dordrecht'. 'Why Dordrecht?' 'Because that is where the de Witt brothers came from.' 'Yes,' said my daughter, 'and where the goose girl found the Spanish soldiers in the hedge.' So we went

back to the beginning of the de Witt brothers' story that ended, as my daughter said, by their 'being torn from limb to limb' by an angry populace in the great Square at the Hague. The children stood for quite a while in front of the statue of the two brothers so peaceful in their strange wigs and heavy clothes. They had expected something else.

Thus we spent the summer dipping into Holland, and still the study for the school year was undiscovered. But finally it came. We were on a long motor trip and had crossed into Belgium. The small gallery of primitives at Bruges presented difficulties, not from lack of interest but from too vivid interest, especially on the part of the girl, in crucifixions, martyrdoms and agonies, and we were finally driven

to the sunlight, the canals and tall benevolent belfries.

The story of Malines burst upon us unaware. It was the first visible sign the children had had of the War. Slowly it grew from pock-marked walls to roofless, crumbling houses, culminating in the sad beauty of the cathedral, a martyrdom in stone as vivid as the painted canvasses of Bruges and, alas! more near. Slowly we circled it as it stood, battered but triumphant, breathing the spirit of its great Cardinal. Within, its windows have been restored. What old glass was left is held in place by a new white expanse, leaving it still

bleeding from a thousand coloured wounds. Perhaps if we could have heard the bells we would have been comforted, but they were silent, and we reached Brussels that evening still plunged in the agony of the War. Until ten, eleven, that night the tale of Belgium was told, my pathetically inadequate knowledge eked out by a book of memoirs of those years, luckily at hand. Anger against Germany burned bright and fierce until, several months later on the Rhine, the children saw at dusk candles burning in the cemeteries to commemorate the soldiers fallen in battle. There was a wondering about the other side of the picture, and hatred was no longer against Germany, but against war.

Perhaps it was the cathedral of Antwerp that turned Bobby's mind back to another war and the struggles of the little country we temporarily called home. He asked: 'What was wrong with the Catholic religion, why did Holland want so terribly to be free?' As

I struggled to give some answer to the question I realized that here was what we had been waiting for, and that it was warp and woof of our environment. That the germ lay not in religion but in history, in the welding of the loose social system of the Middle Ages

into the compact nations of the modern world.

We set forth manfully to answer the question. For laboratory we used the Low Countries, the Rhine and Moselle and the South of England. For manual work we had only clay and the simpler facilities of the carpenter. The children modelled a mediæval town. The castle was built



Propylaea after a shower

and rebuilt, always with a most evident postern-gate for escape in time of need, a portcullis worked with string, and a moat. This project lasted until after Christmas, and it is interesting that there was no vacation: they forgot, and we did not remind them.

Then began preparation for the great adventure. I was fulfilling an old promise of Greece; and we were leaving in the middle of February for ten weeks. Egypt was included, and was our first goal.

Our effort to take only as much luggage as we could carry was complicated by books. It was impossible for us to meet the interests of three young minds, and books became a necessity. In Egypt we used many, especially Breasted, into which we were always delving and, even so, often met unsolved historical problems, until my eldest said: 'If nobody knows, why do we have to learn it?' In Greece we travelled light, having a classical

archæologist as companion as well as a reference library; one who had the wisdom to know when to leave things unsaid and when to build for us an ancient palace out of strange irregular traces of walls and a gate or two.

Time is also a great factor—time for a sudden interest that a too-crowded schedule would nip in the bud—time for play and for stretching of legs. This latter we tried to work into every day as one of the surest guarantees that the child would be 'good'—poor Victorian term!

From the delta of the Rhine we went to the delta of the Nile. An interesting contrast in its utter dissimilarity, and yet the very life of each country depends upon the scientific control of the waters of its river.

Geology, an old interest, was awakened by the Cairo shops, fostered by the curiously marked stones found everywhere in the sand and brought to a climax by finding a real moonstone somewhere in the Sudan. I shall never forget my daughter, sitting on her haunches opposite a pedlar, similarly seated, trying with adopted patience to exchange some cornelians she had found for a shilling string of beads from Germany. The Oriental outdid her in patience, being born to it. Her comment on returning to the boat was: 'It's silly, because it's real cornelian and the beads are only glass'.

We chartered our own boat, for the Egypt of the Cook's tourist is not for children, and we floated down the Nile. It was a strange monotony of many days, yet, curiously, so vibrant that we rose at six in the morning, lest we miss an indefinable something that we

never found. Or did we? In Egypt you must not hurry, for Egypt is the Orient, and you will miss the still small voice coming on the wind of to-day, carrying with it the spell of an ancient time written endlessly by man on massive quarried stone of tomb and temple,

and by the gods in smooth shifting sand and silent cliff. Unless you listen well, the endless line of Pharaohs will lie quiet in their secret tombs. We evoked only a few. Cheops, the pyramid builder, whose likeness is left to us in a tiny ivory statuette, a few inches high. His age, however, is



We try everything

made vivid by a delightful legend of a too-fat man, a series of remarkable portrait statues, and the unsolved problem of the pyramids. Hatshepsut, Pharaoh in spite of her sex, who graced the story of her reign on the walls of her terraced temple. Aknahton, heretic and visionary, perhaps the world's first idealist, whose hymn to the sun strangely resembles the 104th Psalm and who was the father of Tut-ankh-amen.

Greece was greeted as home; Europe, a known world. It spread its carpet of flowers for us and decked its hills with Judas tree and broom, for it is a friendly land. To the children it was a playground. At Marathon they filled their arms with flowers. At Delphi they explored precipice and cavern and spent a long afternoon attacking the lower slopes of Mount Parnassus. We did not point the moral or adorn the tale. We let them play.

In the Peloponnese, with our archæologist, we went sometimes by car, mostly on foot or donkey back. At Mycenæ we dug again with Schliemann, and again proved the tale of

Troy. We learned how the archæologist reasons from the data of stratification and the shard. All this awakened an irresistible desire for treasure-seeking which we restrained with difficulty until one day it was satisfied. At Argive Heraeum we grown-ups were resting while the indefatigable children collected shards and brought them to headquarters for identification. Suddenly Barton arrived breathless: 'Beulah has found a bronze bowl'. We reached the spot and found it to be true. It was firmly imbedded in a wall, and impregnable, but quite as satisfying as if it had been the golden cup of Vaphio.

Sparta, in all its greatness, had vanished. The town is entirely modern and of the ruins there is scarcely a trace. And again, as in ancient times, she was weighed against Athens and what remained to us there. Everywhere the children made friends with the children of the town through some universal language. On our all-day trip from Andritzina to the temple of Bassæ about eight boys followed us, vanishing at the approach of an adult but, with the children, climbing to the top of the temple—to the tops of trees.

Our longest walk was from the heights of Arcady down the valley of the Claudius to Olympia—from six in the morning to eight at night. And at Olympia we found a pleasant resting-place, flower-strewn beneath its groves of pine, its museum a treasure-house with the Apollo and the Hermes. During this trip a pleasant habit had been imperceptibly formed. At each town our mentor gravitated instinctively to the 'museum'. Tiny rooms mostly, but usually with something worth looking for.

Often in the late afternoon we found ourselves on the Acropolis, violet-crowned by the sunset light on its circle of mountains. Once, standing by a fallen capital of the Parthenon, I was comparing it in apparent size to those still standing, trying to show the meaning of line and proportion. In utmost scorn the youngest, pointing to the steps of the base, said: 'You told me it would come to my waist—and look'! He ran to the step, only to find that it came exactly to his waist.

I had wondered if the colossal in Egypt would dwarf the Parthenon, but I need not have feared. There is a surety in the quiet

domination of that low-lying temple-crowned hill. And on leaving Greece it was to the Parthenon we made our last farewells.

We were home—brown, lean and enthusiastic. What would come of it all? The children could not know, and we only dared to hope. That so much has come of it, that for us the experiment has not only proved itself, but goes on proving itself daily, is the reason for this article. Since we have been back in America, and through the children's school, which has most intelligently utilized their experiences, thereby crystallizing their knowledge in their own minds, they are little by little evaluating what they have seen, and Europe is coming into its own.

Contributors to this Issue

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A Summer Camp in Canada

TAYLOR STATTEN

THE organized summer camp movement in America is in a significant stage of transition. The emphasis is shifting from its recreational to its educational function. Many camp directors, keenly sensitive to the newer currents which prevail in educational theory and practice, are demanding that the summer camp be recognized as an important agent in the development of character.

The reasonableness of this demand may be judged from the following facts. More than 1,200 privately owned camps, conducted for eight weeks or more, enrol approximately 150,000 boys and girls annually. The welfare organizations operate more than 4,000 camps of shorter duration, enrolling 800,000 children. It is estimated that parents spend \$100,000,000 every year in camp fees. An enterprise involving nearly a million boys and girls, and so large an expenditure, if directed toward educational purposes, should receive some recognition. Yet it is not because of the extent of its work that the summer camp makes its plea for recognition, but rather because of the nature of its opportunity and the quality of its work.

The private camp counsellor actually has more of the time of the boy or girl, excluding ten hours for sleep, than the regular day-school teacher has during an entire year. So that in terms of 'learning' hours, the two months' summer camp possesses an opportunity equal to that of the day school. Camp is characterized by a joyous freedom. The campers arrive in a state of high anticipation. This is their holiday: there are no examinations to pass, no explaining why, no satisfying adult requirements in the execution of their projects. They do the things they want to do. The eagerness and enthusiasm with which they throw themselves into the various activities make camp life a most important agent in the furthering of all-round self-expression.

Nowhere is it easier to approximate to an ideal co-operative community than in camp. Here, there may be a complete sharing of responsibility according to ability. Frequent

interaction of groups, with varied and often conflicting interests, are important means of socializing behaviour. A camp organized on a thoroughly democratic or co-operative basis possesses unusual opportunity for developing the attitudes and abilities necessary for effective citizenship.

The influence of the campers' own tent or cabin group, and of the counsellor with whom the group has a very vital contact, are of paramount importance. The very nature and demands of camp life, with its intimacy of contact and its sharing of common tasks, provides a unique educational situation.

During the two happiest months in the year, the summer camp supplants the three most influential agencies in the child's life: the home, the school, and the church. It assumes the function of the home in the care of the physical and social well-being of the child; of the school in the stimulation and development of his mental processes; and of the church, in the awakening and development of his emotional and spiritual life. In camp a child cannot rely upon the indulgence of home. He is stripped of any dependence on the wealth of his parents and lives a thoroughly democratic life. And, unlike the church and the school, the camp is free from dogma.

The Taylor Statten Camps consist of three separate units: a boys' camp and two camps for girls. The boys' camp is called Ahmek (Indian for 'beaver'), and is located on the shore of Canoe Lake, in Algonquin Park, Ontario. The girls' camps, Big and Little Wapomeo (Sunshine birds of laughter) are on two small islands which nestle near the opposite shore, about a mile distant from Ahmek.

The camps enrol four hundred children, and engage a staff of two hundred men and women, mostly teachers and university undergraduates. The campers are subdivided into sections, each consisting of some thirty-five campers of about the same age. Each section is almost a self-contained camp with a sectional director and staff of counsellors, but depends on the



general staff for its commissariat arrangements and for special instruction, and shares the general equipment.

The tent or cabin group, composed of from four to six campers and a counsellor, is the basic, or family, unit, and the counsellor is the head of the household. The counsellors determine the true value of the camp to the camper, for if they fail in constant loyalty to the ideals and traditions, this is reflected in the behaviour of their little group.

Counsellors assist with some phase of camp instruction or activity, but they are regarded first of all as counsellors. They share the interest, enthusiasm, and work of their group in the various projects undertaken.

The supervisory agency, or camp cabinet, is composed of the camp director, assistant and sectional directors, business manager, director of health and safety, and directors of programme, projects and personnel.

Although we go into camp with a rather complete organization and equipment, no programme of an organized sort exists, until it emerges from the needs and desires of the community. We recognize that learning and living are identical, that growth is in proportion to purposeful participation, and that experience is valuable in the degree to which it is social and shared. This emphasis has been carried to the point where the curriculum is identified with the total process of living in the camp, rather than with organized and directed activities. The whole life of the camp is the curriculum. Education is conceived as the series of activities, adjustments, relationships and attitudes which make up the campers' daily experiences.

During the first few days activities naturally centre in the establishment of comfortable and attractive quarters in which to spend the summer. Fireplaces are constructed, fences set in order, rustic benches, ferns, and small evergreens placed round cabins and tents. Much time is needed for informal investigating and exploration. Expeditions are made from one end of the camp to the other. Points of special interest beyond the immediate environment are visited. Groups working with their counsellors 'hit upon great ideas' by which their particular cabin or tent will be recognized

as worthy of the camp traditions.

The tent groupings which have been arranged by the cabinet previous to the opening of camp are considered tentative. The campers are encouraged to form their own groups and select their own counsellors. Each child must have a happy adjustment to the 'family' unit. With over four hundred children coming from all parts of America and some from other lands, deliberate groupings are inevitable. The ingenuity of counsellors is taxed during the first week in seeking to fit maladjusted children into congenial groups.

During the first evening in camp each group holds an organization meeting and elects its representative to their sectional council. On the second day these sectional councils meet, and it is through these that the camp programme emerges. The representatives bring the requests of the groups to the Grand Council, which meets with the Camp Cabinet and make requests as to the programme for the following day. This council meets regularly each morning, and as all interests are represented the life rapidly becomes a co-operative enterprise. One cannot help being impressed by the spontaneous character of such a curriculum: it not only represents life—it *is* life.

On account of the close, intimate and friendly relationship between campers and counsellors, the latter are always included in the various committees. In fact, we do not think of it as self-government by the campers, but rather as co-operative government by all. The staff recognize that the degree of responsibility and participation in co-operative control must be consonant with the capacity of the campers for successfully coping with the problems involved in group life, for making plans, bearing responsibility, and respecting group decisions.

Of necessity certain emergency safety regulations must be formulated by the staff at the beginning—non-swimmers, for example, must refrain from entering deep water, or using canoes and sail-boats. But these arbitrary rules are recognized as strictly *interim* affairs. We realise the desirability of having the campers share as early as possible in the making of the decisions and plans in which they are involved.

Our policy has been to provide abundant resources, both in materials and men, so that almost every conceivable situation might be turned to educational account; and the staff give careful attention to methods and devices for detecting individual interests and aims.

There is increasing recognition on the part of parents, educators and psychiatrists, that the summer camp may be of much importance in problems of social adjustment. The camp is free from erratic parental discipline. Mental hygiene methods may be carried out without prejudice or interference. No other situation lends itself more readily to complete environmental control, and at the same time affords so great an opportunity for satisfying basic urges and desires. Constant and thorough observation, essential for both diagnostic and remedial purposes, is possible. The intimacy and informality of the relationship between camper and counsellor is a distinct asset. Understanding of the social needs of a child

may often be secured in camp in a few days.

The most crucial problem faced by the camp which seriously attempts to utilize the knowledge and methods of current psychology, sociology and education for the attainment of character, is that of securing suitable leaders. We draw our counsellors from a cross-section of the colleges and universities, and our best leaders come up from the ranks of the campers. The senior campers are 'groomed' for posts of leadership.

The co-operative sharing of responsibilities and experiences among the directors and counsellors makes the camp an ideal situation for the development of skilful leaders. The functional approach to learning through actual practice in leadership aids purposeful action. The summer camp provides unusual opportunity for the all-round development of this learning-living process. The doing, and the learning to do, more effectively, are inseparable.



Easter in France

B. A. HOWARD

I CAN explain easily enough the bare facts as to who we were, where we went, when we went, how we went, what it cost us, what we did . . . but the problem is to make these dry bones live. They lived all right in actuality ; and if they do not seem to the reader to live, the fault will lie rather in the manner of telling than in the facts themselves.

We were a party of boys, girls, masters and mistresses, 84 in number, from Addey and Stanhope School. The journey was arranged in the school holidays, for the benefit of all people from the IVth Forms of the School and upwards ; and most of those thus eligible to come took advantage of the opportunity. The ages ranged from 14 to 18—not including the staff ; though they seemed to be in some respects the most youthful of all. We left Waterloo on the evening of Easter Monday, 21st April, blissfully forgetful of the fact that we were due to arrive back there on the morning of Saturday, 3rd May. Thoughts of taking part in the movement of life in Southampton Harbour and the excitement of the long night crossing to St. Malo were sufficient to drive minor considerations such as a mere return to work well out of mind. Besides, were we not on our way to spend our fortnight at a well-known hotel at Paramé, within a few yards of that unequalled stretch of sands which runs all the way north from St. Malo to Rotheneuf ? This hotel we had engaged, as on a previous visit in 1927, for our exclusive use, and if any reader of the *New Era* wishes its name, and will write to me enclosing a stamped



St. Malo

addressed envelope (this is most important), I will first ascertain that he does not wish to take a party there which might clash with ourselves and then I will let him have the address with pleasure.

The cost of our journey worked out at almost exactly £5 per head. This included almost everything : the travelling both by land and water, with a certain number of reserved berths on the boat (we had to sleep two in a berth, but that is all the greater fun. The most economical method of packing is head to foot), the hotel accommodation and three good meals a day there, all necessary tips, the hire of a steam-boat to take the entire party 15 miles up the Rance to Dinan, the hire of four chars-à-bancs to take the

party to Mont-St.-Michel, breakfast on the return journey and a reserved dining-saloon on the train in which to eat it.

We have always made a point of keeping the cost of our School journeys as low as possible. One good method of doing this is to join the School Journey Association ; it gives useful help in a variety of ways and can sometimes secure cheaper fares than can otherwise be obtained. We have never, however, gone to any of the travel agencies, since we find by experience that, with the magic words, 'we can't afford . . .', we can reduce any and every price quoted by 50 per cent.

A few extra things, such as fares on tramways, were paid for by the children themselves. We discouraged, however, unnecessary expenditure, and although some people spent several pounds other people managed with as many

shillings. We suggested to parents that pocket money should be limited to fifteen shillings, and most of them fell in loyally with this suggestion, even although it meant that in the last day or two a considerable number of people found themselves '*sur les rochers*'. As this is a phrase not known to many Englishmen (or, for that matter, to many Frenchmen either) it might be explained that it is the Addey term for the state to which one is reduced when one has spent all one's pocket-money.

As to what we did. To begin with, we spent one whole day at Mont-St.-Michel, some 30 miles away—an admirable place for any boy or girl to see, since it strikes easily on the imagination of even those whose taste for scenery is immature. For a small *pourboire* we secured a special guide who took us round the Abbey and spoke French very slowly and clearly so that most of us were able to pretend that we understood him, and a few of us actually did. Other School Journey parties, visiting Mont-St.-Michel, might be reminded that there are at least two cafés there, and that if they go to the wrong one they will not get a drink of lemonade for less than eightpence a glass. Warned by our previous experience in 1927, this year we went to the right one.

We spent another day at Dinan, 15 miles up the river Rance. Dinan, although not as popular as Mont-St.-Michel, has a more alluring and subtle charm, redolent of mediæval dreams and chivalry.

Of course we visited Dinard also. It was tolerable just then, but must surely get quite intolerable toward August—a casino, packed beaches, and all the appurtenances of the completely sophisticated watering-place. But to go through Dinard to St. Enogat, to scramble over rocks and sands toward St. Lunaire—or

even to St. Briac—to devour enormous sandwiches of French rolls on a comfortable point of knobbly rock—with a panorama of coastline which must be seen to be believed—these count among the things which make life worth living, a sheer delight which Dinard and her rivals can never give.

A morning was spent in the markets of St. Servan, and many an odd hour in the attractive little streets of St. Malo—in its cathedral, its shops, on its ramparts and even (if the truth must be told) in its *pâtisseries*.

Other groups at other times pushed further south

than St. Servan, exploring the St. Suliac district; and most of us visited Rotheneuf two or three times. The sculptured rocks there are distinctly worth seeing—though some of us thought they were more impressive as nature left them.

A good many impromptu games of cricket and tennis on the sands kept us busy in odd moments. The boys of the party hired the local football ground and played three full-dress football matches before a crowd of admiring inhabitants of the neighbourhood. Four French newspapers 'reported' us and the match against the French Army came in for special comment. (Well, perhaps not the entire army, but the 41st Regiment at any rate.) Unfortunately the Army won, although our own people played up well; but the British audience completely outclassed the French audience in the noise they made. Some of this football match is on permanent record, since we took a cine-camera with us and the film has since been shown at School. It might be mentioned also that we are now engaged in making lantern slides out of some of the many hundreds of photographs taken by various members of the party.

To some this will appear the record of a wasted journey. No lessons? No instruction?



Some of the Party

No crocodiles forming up for instructive visits to museums? No culture pumped in insidiously? No real effort to improve anyone's mind? No, none of these things. (So little effort did we make to improve anyone's mind that we did not even tell the party that 'Ralentir', so conspicuous at the entrance of many a French village, was not the name of the village itself.) We were on holiday, and there are more things in heaven and earth than are dreamed of in a pedagogue's philosophy. If you spend a good holiday in fresh air, with congenial companions, all these things will be added unto you. There can hardly have been a boy or girl in the party who did not come back not merely having enjoyed his-her holiday to the full, but physically fitter than when he-she went away, with mind broadened, curiosity stirred, sympathies enlarged. But we did not aim *directly* at any of these things.

One or two other notes might be added. It will be gathered that there is very little regimentation and shepherding on an Addey School Journey. In actual travelling there is of course a good deal; various groups of the party have naturally to be kept together and to be marked off and marched about in something more or less like regimental order (parents seem anxious that no child should be lost on the way); but once in France there is almost complete liberty. Every boy and girl was in charge of a section leader whose permission had to be obtained for any special excursion he desired to undertake, and we never let single children wander about on their own, parties being two, three or more; but apart from this the utmost freedom was allowed.

No one who knows Addey and Stanhope will need to be told that there was no separation of boys and girls during the daytime. Why should there be? They sat together for meals, they went out together if they pleased, they played tennis together, they entertained each other in the *pâtisseries*; the only difference was that they had their bedrooms on separate floors of the hotel. Boys and girls even departed together, much against their will, on the evening of 2nd May. When the throng of pale-brown faces gathered at the quay-side in St. Malo and began to file silently on to the boat, a sudden din of yells and shrieks broke from over against the sunset, and St. Malo was gently informed that Addey and Stanhope was on its way home. No murder being committed—merely friends from opposing French school-teams tendering a fond farewell to *leurs amis de là-bas*, and endeavouring to drown our answering battle-cry which bid fair to shatter the ship. But the *Dinard* stood the strain, and heaving slowly round and away, drew us firmly out to sea, past the twinkling lights of St. Malo, between dark masses of rock, until only a faint lighthouse in the distance remained to hold our gaze. Well—all over now—into our berths once more, head to foot and mind how you kick, until morning brings us to Southampton again. Of the copious breakfast tucked away while the train whirled along to Waterloo little need be said, and still less of our arrival in London in a good homely rain! But our spirits had been raised too high to be easily brought down now, and we went our separate ways as gaily as though this were the beginning and not the end.

Diary of a Rhineland Castle Cruise

FRIENDLY ADVENTURER

June, 1930

Friday-Saturday. Crossed from Harwich to Zeebrugge. Then on to Bruges, where we were met by the C.O. who took us along a paved street to a real country lane just outside one of

the ancient gates of the city—the Porte Maré-chale—where we espied our three navy blue cabins all ready and waiting for us.

It did not take us long to settle in and then

off we went to explore the city, visiting the Cathedral, the Market, the Museum and the Belfry.

Monday. Packed our lunch and went off to Holland for the day by canal—a new experience for all but one of the party who, having made a similar trip last year, felt very superior!

Tuesday. Left Bruges at 9.0 a.m. very reluctantly and thinking regretfully of the quaint old-world city and the many places we had not had time to see. Spent four hours in Brussels wandering about the town, and then went on *via* Luxemburg to Karthaus, where we were ferried across the Mosel to our cabins, which were similar to those at Bruges except that from them we had a glorious view across the river and countryside.

Wednesday. The first thing to do, of course, was to bathe, and after that we decided to visit Trier which, as the inhabitants are so fond of telling one, existed hundreds of years before Rome. What astonished us most was the architecture, almost every style and period being found in the one town.

We visited the old Roman fortress, Porta Nigra, the beautiful market-place with Gangelph's Tower in the background, and the Mosel Museum. Some of our party then explored the Cathedral and Our Lady's Church while others preferred to see the remains of the Roman amphitheatre and picture the scenes which took place there.

Thursday. Explored the surrounding country, not forgetting to visit the 'Nells Landchen' or Grove of Friendship with its monument and ponds magically formed by the Canon of St. Paulin and presented to his fellow-citizens. After lunch we took the train to Saarburg, the centre of the Saar wine trade, and visited the Castle, the Church and the Sepulchre of the blind King John of Bohemia.

Friday. Off to St. Goar by train, carrying with us happy memories of the wonderful old city of Trier, the exquisite beauty of the vine-clad hills and of the unfailing friendliness of our welcome everywhere. Passed Neumagen with its remains of Constantine's Castle, Cochem on the left bank of the river with its Monastery and two ruined Castles, Brodenbach where the *Friend Ship* cabins were last year, until we reached Coblenz at the junction of the Mosel and the Rhine. We then followed the

Rhine to St. Goar where we were met and taken to our cabins by the ruins of the wonderful old Castle Rheinfels at the back of the town. Our stay here seemed just one marvellous dream of bathing, sun-bathing and rides through the most romantic and thrilling country in the world—in fact, I really could not keep a proper diary.

We visited the Lorelei rock, saw famous castle after famous castle and spent many happy hours watching the shipping on the river.

Monday. Early in the morning we started our *Rheinfahrt*, and went down stream, past ruined castle and flourishing vineyard to Bonn, which faces the Seven Hills and is famous as being the birthplace of Beethoven. Just before reaching Bonn we passed Rolandseck with its legends of the gallant Knight Roland and, on the right bank, the most famous of the Seven Hills, the Drachenfels, where Siegfried killed the dragon.

We had just over an hour in which to 'do' Cologne, and we certainly hustled. At Aachen we were met and taken to the Pont Tor which looks even more imposing in reality than in the photographs. We went up the stone steps outside and into the two huge halls which were to serve us as sleeping and sitting rooms during our stay. As it was getting late we went out to supper in a large students' hostel and the younger members of the party were much intrigued by the students' velvet caps, which seemed to them nearly as funny as English schoolboys' caps appear to Germans.

Tuesday. The next day we devoted to excursions and some of us went by motor-coach to Maastricht and Liège, while others were content to take the tram to Vaals on the Dutch frontier and to walk from there through the beautiful Aachener Stadtwald.

Wednesday. On our last day we visited the Minster and its Treasure House, the Town Hall and the Museums. Of course, we all drank the waters from the famous wells and finished up with tea at little white tables under gay umbrellas on the terrace outside the Elisenbrunner.

Friday. Arrived at Liverpool Street after a most thrilling, crowded and jolly fortnight, which passed all too soon—still—there is always next year to look forward to!

Family Relationships in the Changing Home*

SIDONIE MATSNER GRUENBERG

IN the agricultural civilization which ruled not so very long ago, the home was a fairly compact unit that could stand pretty well by itself. Time had established a pattern of relationships that standardized routine and reduced frictions to a minimum, while yielding an optimum of service and productivity. Each individual had a place, usually found it, and accepted it.

This pattern has been broken up, and men and women have lost their bearings. They do not know their places, do not know whether there are places for them, do not know how to find out. It has become a commonplace that the industrial revolution has taken out of the home, one after another, all the important economic processes. The work of men has become more sharply separated from the work of women, the education of children through participation in home activities and in the social correlates of these activities, has been eliminated. Where increasing material prosperity spares the children for a longer period from wage-earning, there is already, for vast urban populations at least, little but the form of the home left to serve as a model, little but a sentimental tradition to serve as inspiration.

Strangely enough, this imposes upon those who undertake to make homes greater responsibilities and greater demands than their parents, for the most part, had to meet. There remains little excuse for the family unless it can develop a monopoly of certain spiritual functions. With the increasing number of specialists and with other new influences acting upon the individual child, there is need for definite help from the home in guiding and orienting him in relation to the complex environment. The parent must become a skilled adviser to furnish the co-ordinating factor amidst the perplexities and confusions of so many diverse impressions and demands.

For despite the breaking away from the patterns of the past, the home still stands out as the most important single influence in the

child's development from infancy through the subsequent stages of growth. The home is, in its very essence, a continuity of relationships, a unifying and co-ordinating agency for all the child's experiences. Whatever he sees in the outside world, all that he experiences in thought and feeling, is, in the last analysis, interpreted under the psychological domination of the home pattern. Therein lies the peculiar significance of the home as the builder of personality.

The home has always been the centre of conflicts and adjustments, many of which are inherent in the very living together of grown and growing individuals. Every generation, every people, has had to deal with the universal struggle between old and young: the family drama that accompanies the maturing process may be found in all times and among peoples everywhere. Until very recently this drama of family life has gone on behind closed doors; but it has been no less acute because it has been hidden from public view. Only within our own times have we begun to distinguish some of the emotional *motifs* of this drama, especially the emotional states of the parents in relation to their adolescent children: the mother seeking a husband-substitute in her son; the father seeing the mother-image in his daughter; parents everywhere hoping to relive or to perfect their own lives through the lives of their children, centring about their sons and daughters conflicts growing out of their own social, money, and love strivings, and because of these too often imposing upon their children false standards and expectations. The resulting tensions and fixations may be stumbling-blocks to normal growth from the earliest childhood years.

How often do we see parental ambition, unsatisfied, seeking expression through the children, with unfortunate conflicts resulting? What happens when an intelligent boy of

*This article includes part of a paper read before the First International Congress on Mental Hygiene at Washington on 8th May 1930.

seventeen, always a good student, and from a family of outstanding social and financial success, suddenly begins to fail in his work during the last year of secondary school? This unexpected failure releases in the father a hostility born of outraged vanity, but in the son it may represent a dogged resistance, at any price, to the authority of the father. A family tradition has been violated; relations between father and son are strained almost to breaking-point. Further, only an understanding on the part of both father and son of the real issues involved can rescue such a boy from a life built upon conflict and hatred.

Again, we see children unconsciously struggling against parental domination of their social choices. A girl of seventeen, attending school in her home city, is very uncommunicative at home about her outside activities and her friendships. Her parents are deeply troubled because they do not know her companions; they are hurt because she offers no share in her activities. She rarely brings her friends home, and never invites her intimates to the elaborate parties her mother arranges for her, and in which she herself takes only a perfunctory interest. Inquiry reveals that this girl's tastes and interests differ widely from those of her parents. She will not bring her friends home to be criticized and judged by the parental standards which she knows are so different from her own. These parents are widening the rift because they are unwilling to accept their child's friends and enjoyments on her own terms—to recognize the fact that her social needs and drives have taken other directions and find expression in ways other than their own. By an intelligent understanding of the needs, and also of the fact that these may be temporary and shifting, these parents may help their daughter to a wholesome recognition of what is worth while and valid in their own strivings.

We are sometimes regaled by the picture of the tranquil and happy family in which harmony always prevails. We are not informed that such a family is often dominated by one strong personality that obtains unity at the expense of individuality and growth. Nor are we informed that in many cases the outward appearance of tranquillity conceals a turbulence

through which hatreds are nurtured and hearts broken. It is possible, however, for a family to cultivate a harmony of mutual give and take that does no violence to essential requirements of the various personalities, that actually facilitates a reciprocal contribution to growth.

In each instance there is that germ of serious inner conflict which often becomes the core of later difficulties in the relationships of parents and children. Nor can we say that it is possible, through purely educational methods, fully to resolve the conflict. Parents, products of their own early environments, and victims of their own childhood conflicts and unfulfilled yearnings, cannot alter parent-child relationships easily. They can, however, before the difficulty has developed beyond repair, bring the basic problems into some form of conscious control, and little by little build up an emotional as well as an intellectual acceptance of the child as an individual, and of his place in the family constellation.

The changes to which reference has been made have affected the home in details. They are, so to say, piecemeal changes, although each involves in turn profound effects upon other aspects of the domestic scene. The educational functions, for example, have been for generations slowly seeping out of the home until in comparatively recent times the erecting of schools seems to have become a universal passion. To-day we measure our progress by the reduction of illiteracy, by the proportion of our population enrolled in schools, by the number of adults engaged in educational work. Nevertheless, the extrusion of the more formal parts of education from the home, and the consequent separation of parents and children in their daily activities, have not removed the children entirely from the educational influence of the parents. The home continues, because of the inevitable interaction of personalities, to impose attitudes and ideals, to influence standards and aspirations, to arouse or to thwart.

The growth of democracy in which we take so much pride has theoretically raised the dignity of every individual; it has penetrated the home and given every child a new status. In this wider recognition of the individual as a person the parent, as adult, has gained in

self-esteem among his peers, and by the same token it becomes increasingly difficult for him to impose his will or his whim upon his children. Obedience has ceased to be a cardinal virtue, but parents in most cases have failed to discover an effective substitute. They still have it within their power to impose restrictions and to exact certain compliances from their children, for the latter remain for a longer period dependent for their subsistence; but they are rather at a loss as to what restrictions and what compliances to insist upon. For parents themselves, as we see them at present, have lost the familiar guides and signposts by which to determine their own attitudes towards the new patterns of convention and propriety, to say nothing of the patterns they would insist upon for their children.

Another modern problem in relationship between parents and children has emerged out of the tendency to prolong the period of schooling and freedom from economic obligation. By this very 'freedom' from economic responsibility we are in reality tying our young people closer to ourselves, for their opportunity to continue in school as well as all the other good things they enjoy are theirs through the gift of the parents, rather than as a result of their own exertions. Now, while the younger child accepts this relationship as a matter of course, the adolescent becomes increasingly resentful of it as he becomes increasingly aware of the restraints which the parents thus exercise over his coming and going. However intelligently and sincerely the privileged youth may weigh the advantages of his educational opportunity, both conscious and unconscious resentments against the control implied by this economic dependence are unavoidable.

This unfortunate outcome of our laudable efforts to give our children every possible advantage that modern education has to offer can be largely mitigated, and often entirely avoided, if we can again find a way for the growing individual to assume ever increasing responsibilities. For example, there is the problem of money: learning to manage it can come only through experience in spending and in earning. The allowance, however small in the beginning and however large it may become, needs always to be considered

the child's own portion of the family income over which his discretion is absolute. By grading the allowance to the growth in experience, and by extending the range of needs which it is to supply, the child may gradually learn to discriminate in his spending and selecting, in the amount and form of his savings, in the extent and the nature of his gifts to others for whatever purpose.

Again, with the advantages of increasing leisure and reduced economic pressure for more and more families, there go the disadvantages of increasing separation of the children from the necessity of making important decisions for themselves. More and more every detail is predetermined for them, from the selection of food and clothing to the books and games and the cinemas of their presumably free enjoyment. A group of mothers of ten-year-old children was asked to observe for one week the occasions upon which the children could take the initiative in their activities, or make significant choices as to what they would do or have; and the result was practically zero. So far is this protection carried that many children well on in the high school appear to be quite without initiative in everything except perhaps some of their personal friendships or games.

The severing of maternal bonds, which is as much a liberation for the parent as it is for the child, is essentially an organic process of growth and development, and should normally be expected to extend over a period of years. Indeed, it is a continuous process from infancy on. The weaning of the child from the mother's breast, learning to sleep alone, learning to walk without holding a hand, learning to cross a street alone, or to go to school alone, are all steps in the long road which takes the child farther and farther from his dependence upon the parent, but that may lead eventually by a circular route to a mature relation of renewed intimacy with the parent.

The parent's responsibility to supply opportunities for becoming acquainted with the accumulated wisdom and experience of the past does not include the obligation to make too short the path towards adulthood and self-reliant, self-directing personality. We need constantly to sense the difference between the

child's learning and his growing. We can accelerate the learning process at many points by concentrating upon knowledge and skill, and thus enrich the child's equipment. We have found no reliable means, however, for accelerating growth and maturity. The inner maturing of the spirit is indeed parallel to the outwardly visible development of the body; but each takes its own good time, and the parallelism is not absolute, point for point, or day by day.

With the growing appreciation of individuality, which is intricately bound up with the other social changes, the status of parents as persons has also shifted. Each of us makes greater demands upon the world around us than did ever parents before—except, perhaps, the demand for recognition of our 'authority'. Accordingly, there is less disposition to adopt the attitude of 'sacrifice' formerly associated with the function of the parent. We are willing to do a great deal for our children, we are willing to exert ourselves mightily; but we question the need for martyrdom, or indeed, its virtue. Moreover, many of us suspect that we may really be of greater help to our children

if we develop our own individuality to a higher level, if we achieve an enrichment of our own personalities so that our children may be glad to associate with us on terms of equality. And we have to realize that the relationship between parents and children is constantly changing. Many parents are not sufficiently aware of the rapidity with which the infant becomes a toddler and the toddler in turn becomes a schoolboy. Adolescent manifestations seem to burst upon the household almost over night, without the parents' adequate preparation for their advent either in material or in emotional adjustment. The need for readjustment is ever present.

Because it is so intimate and so subtle, it is easy to think of the parent-child relationship as nothing more than a bond between two individuals. But its importance does not stop with this fundamental relation. Every human being, whether he realizes it or not, has at some time been a party to some kind of parent-child relationship. Along with a few other inescapable life experiences, its roots go deep within the individual life.

The League of Nations in Schools—'Our' League

C. W. JUDD

IN his article last month Mr. Oliver Bell suggested some of the ways by which boys and girls before they leave school might become familiar with at least the simpler facts connected with the aims and organization of the League of Nations. But to quote from the *Declaration* signed by the principal Teachers' Associations in this country in 1927: 'Knowledge alone without some change of feeling and of purpose will not suffice to make international co-operation the normal method of conducting world-affairs'. The authors of that Declaration believed that it was even more important to create 'a sense of world citizenship', a spirit of loyalty to the world community.

By providing for boys and girls in all countries common interests which cut right across national frontiers, the Boy Scouts and Girl Guides, the Junior Red Cross, the Save the Children Fund and similar organizations are already laying the foundations of a common citizenship. In this country it is also significant that no less than one hundred and sixty-four Local Education Authorities annually arrange that in their schools on Empire Day boys and girls shall be reminded not only of the obligations this country owes to the group of nations which

form the British Commonwealth, but also of its obligations towards the still larger group of states that constitute the League. When we learn to speak as naturally of 'our league' as we do of 'our Empire' we shall be nearer the time when, in President Wilson's words, 'men will be as ashamed of being disloyal to humanity as they are now of being disloyal to their country'.

In the nine hundred Junior and School Branches of the League of Nations Union and in similar groups elsewhere, boys and girls correspond with children in other lands, read the newspapers and cut out pictures and news of other countries, hold Model League Assemblies and undoubtedly come to regard the League of Nations as *their* League, a living human organization to which they belong and which they can serve. That, too, is the basis of the new Children's League of Nations. Started by Mr. Arthur Mee in the *Children's Newspaper* last November, it has already enrolled 17,571 members in 31 countries.

It is encouraging to find that an authoritative Joint Committee of Enquiry representing the three great associations of Local Education Authorities and the principal Associations of Teachers attaches very great importance to this side of the problem.

German Children 'At Home' in England

FRITZ WÖLCKEN

EVERY spring and autumn we go on walking tours. This year we made the spring programme cover four weeks so as to arrange long tours to foreign countries or to distant parts of our own.

One group went to England, with the idea not only of seeing the country, but also of meeting and making friends with English children. For this reason we decided on day schools, and arranged to visit four. Thus our tour was considerably modified by the restrictions of place and date, and much more fixed than it would have been in our own country and if we had not had the object of making friends.

On the way we stayed a night in Aix-la-Chapelle and in Dover. Mr. Roberts of Frensham Heights School had arranged with the Dover Y.M.C.A. to put us up that night, and next day we went to Frensham and stayed there for our first week in England. I had visited Frensham Heights on two occasions before, and there has always been friendly connections between it and our own school, and reciprocal visits of staff and children. Frensham gave us a very warm welcome, and this was largely responsible for the success of our tour, for we were made to feel at home in England and gained confidence for meeting the other schools. The children of Frensham had elected a special committee to look after us, and we made trips to Winchester and to Stonehenge and Salisbury. When we left Frensham we were all aware that even in these few days friendly companionship had been established.

In London we spent only a day and toured the principal streets and parks. We visited no museums or galleries with the exception of the British Museum, as English life was our main object.

We then went North to join the Priory Gate School, Wereham, nr. King's Lynn, on a walking tour through the Midlands. We went through Sherwood Forest, skirted the Sheffield country and the Peak district and came to The

Potteries. We saw beautiful country and large industries, went down a coal mine and had great talks with our friends. We spent a fortnight in this way—the longest time we stayed with any one school, and it was well spent, for we became one group very soon instead of two.

In The Potteries we left the Priory Gate School for Abbotsholme, near Rocester, Derbyshire, the prototype of all German Free Schools. Here, as a co-educational group in a boys' school, we caused some stir!

The last week we spent in the Friends' School, Saffron Walden. We did not make friends here with individual children as we did in the other schools, but took part in the school life as a whole and came to know members of the staff.

The tour was a great success, and we shall spend months in living it over again. It is impossible to over-estimate the value of a visit of this kind to a foreign country. The gain on the language side is obvious. Still more important is the broadening of the mind, and the friendships which now link every one of our children to England.

We are very grateful to the Headmasters of the schools we visited for all their kindness to us. But kindness was shown not alone by those who knew of us; everyone we met tried to help us and do his best for us. We all appreciated this very much and are now on the watch for an opportunity to help foreigners in our own country.

The group numbered six girls, three boys and a teacher. The cost of the tour was about £12 for each child. This low figure—low for a five weeks' tour in England—is explained by the fact that we slept in tents the whole time, and were guests at Frensham Heights and Saffron Walden. The greatest item in the cost was the railway fares, on which we could get no reduction, the actual cost of living being less than half the sum mentioned.

English Boys 'At Home' in the Rhineland

GEORGE MACWILLIE

THE 25 Chatham Technical Schoolboys who were in Solingen last April could give first-hand information about Germany and the Germans, because they were housed in German homes. For some months previous they had been in correspondence with their German boy friends into whose homes they were to enter as guests for a month, and when they arrived they were given a welcome that they will not easily forget. How well these English boys know a German home! They can inform you about its scrupulous tidiness and orderliness, and they will admit the strictness of parental control. They know all about the speed of trams, omnibuses and railway trains, what fares they charge and what uniforms the men wear. They can provide plenty of information about German schools, for were not their correspondents pupils of the Solingen Realgymnasium and Oberrealschule? They will pay handsome compliments to the splendid equipment of a modern German Secondary School.

The month our boys had in Solingen has been of immense formative value. They went ostensibly to learn German more thoroughly, and in this respect the visit has been of course highly successful. The boys have acquired a facility in understanding spoken German, and in speaking, that they could not have acquired at home. And it was *real* German they learnt, not word lists derived from context, or fragments of artificial conversation. They have picked up many of the sporting terms, know what to say at table, when retiring to rest, or when rising in the morning. They know the names of the different types of shops and how the chief articles therein are named; for have they not gone shopping themselves or in company with their German 'parents'?

But not only in language have they become better pupils. They have learned the topo-

graphy, one might say, of a German town. They have seen how alike in some respects and how different in others a German town is from an English one. Their excursions to Cologne, the renowned Drachenfels and up the storied Rhine as far as Bingen and Rüdesheim, have given them lasting impressions of the most romantic part of the Rhineland.

The hospitality which the English boys enjoyed was most lavish. Everything was done to make them feel at home. One mother who had lost her husband in the war was particularly anxious that her youthful guest should not write home if everything was not up to perfection. The care this lady took of her English boy was never-ending. On whole-day excursions many lads had enough provender to last nearly a week. Some had no need to buy stamps or writing-paper, as these were given them; and nearly every boy was given presents of Solingen cutlery before he left. The boys of the two nations understood each other excellently. Some, of course, made friends faster than others; in fact, one or two German boys felt jealous if their comrade was too long away from their presence. It was delightful to see these boys playing and running about together like children of one nation, quite oblivious of the fact that their fathers, a few short years before, had been doing their best to exterminate each other. It almost felt like a justification of the saying of Jesus: 'Out of the mouths of babes and sucklings Thou hast perfected praise'.

In August the Solingen boys are paying a return visit. Undoubtedly they too will be gathering a rich harvest of impressions which will crystallize into first-hand knowledge. And this knowledge will not wear away, but will endure and perhaps form a stone in the temple of world peace which the rising generation hope to build against the assault of prejudice and hate.

A New Plan of Homework

HELEN K. SHELDON

I SUPPOSE that no subject has been more discussed, or more fruitful of discussion, in girls' schools, since first they came into being, than the subject of homework. The discussion that I have heard is usually a somewhat one-sided one, because the general public has, I believe, come to regard homework, not as it was meant to be—an exercise of mutual benefit to both teacher and taught—but as a kind of imposition laid by A upon B, so that A shall, somehow, give B all the work to do, and be able herself to 'laze' at will. A stands, always, of course, for the mistress.

It was this manifest unfairness, combined with the equally important fact (and the one generally-accepted) that, whatever a mistress may say, she really likes people to over-work, that made me first determine to investigate this much-debated subject—and let me say at once that I am a believer in well-regulated homework.

In dealing with this question, the things to be considered are: If homework is a good thing, (1) do we go the right way to work to deal with it? and (2) how can we make it fit all the people who want it, and all those who do not want it?

It may interest you to know how one ignorant but inquisitive person, who really wanted homework in her school to be the helpful thing it should be, attacked the matter.

For one whole year I saw most of the written work of the school, and all the girls who 'forgot' to do the tasks set. I used the best of my energy to force some kind of work from them, and I even chased all their corrections to the bitter end. At intervals I sat down and thought about things. I had many talks with individual members of my staff; I invited the opinions of any parents that I happened to see; and I consulted with my older girls.

Out of the mass of material these facts emerged:—

(1) That as a rule a good deal of the feeling of over-pressure arises from too many subjects to be dealt with on one day.¹

(2) That though much of the homework set is very valuable to the girls, some is helpful only to

the very few, while some is a mere waste of time and of energy.

(3) That the fact that different girls work at different rates, and that the rare person only can work always at a high level, was too often not remembered.

(4) That girls who habitually 'forgot' to do work were not people who really 'appreciated' the trouble taken, and that even when in the end *under pressure of outside force* the allotted task was done, it was, more often than not, a grudging and spiritless affair.

(5) That young mistresses have to train themselves to realise that no homework should be set (a) on the spur of the moment (our system of work on a modified assignment plan prevents this, but in some schools it is a real evil); or (b) unless it is to the advantage of the pupils. Mistresses are too prone, under any system, to think that something *must* be set, if a homework time is allowed.

(6) That certain subjects more than others lead to over-work. Of these, with girls, the chief offender seems to be mathematics, and yet in this subject more particularly, unless the work is done to time, all point in doing it is lost.

(7) That the young of our sex—though they are not alone in this—love to be martyrs, and that there is something attractive in being considered to be 'over-worked', especially perhaps if one is not.

(8) That great evil arises from the fact that many girls, often the delicate ones, will over-work and sit up late.

(9) That even if you make periodical inquiry into the time spent on homework, this is (for a variety of reasons) unsatisfactory, and not preventive of the evil mentioned in (8). Very few girls remember to time themselves, unless a report has to be made at once, and many girls who take more time than they should over their work fail to mention it, for fear that they may lose their year's move by so doing.

(10) Last, but by no means least, that the accusation that we say one thing and mean another seems all too true. Our over-ardent desire for what *we* consider the right kind of work, and the right amount, had too often led us astray, so that we had all of us been guilty at times of such phrases as: 'Oh, Mary, I expected more of *you*', or 'Oh, Dorothy, this is not up to your usual standard'; and that we had in effect asked for more time to be given, often with little or no regard for the individual circumstances.

Out of these ten facts we have educed the following system of homework:—

In order to encourage accuracy—a much lacking virtue in these days—we have a certain

amount of learning by heart each day: this lessens from half an hour a day in the lowest forms to half an hour on three days a week in Forms IV (age 12-14) and LV (age 14-15) to nothing in Form V (age 15-16)—the School Certificate Form.

All the rest of the homework has been made voluntary work, and we hope that this will bring about more joy and interest from the girls in giving; more care in setting and more courtesy and pleasure on our part in receiving. We have gone most carefully into the work, and have omitted all that seemed not really useful. We have knocked out mathematics as a home subject (except from Form V upwards) and have instituted a weekly test in school instead. We have lessened the number of lessons to be done on each evening to a minimum, by putting all the homeworks for each subject into one longer period. We have pledged ourselves to try to give in our actual lessons all the essential facts, so that girls shall not feel that they will be too badly off if they do no homework: otherwise it would hardly be fair to call homework voluntary.

We have made it quite clear, however, that we do believe in homework and that we do want it to be of real use to the community: we are therefore setting our work most carefully and trying to make it as varied and as full of choice as possible to meet the varying needs, and we are taking great pains in correcting as well as ever we can, all the work that is given in to us: we are no longer running round after work that is not given in, though at the request of any individual girl we are receiving late and correcting any such work for special reasons. We do *not* expect every girl who does work for us to do the same amount, or all that is set, but so that we can form a fair estimate of the value of what has been done, each girl is asked to put at the end of her work the approximate time taken. The only proviso is that the allotted time (half an hour at the bottom of the school to two hours or so at the top) must be the maximum, and any girl, who habitually fails to keep her word not to exceed that time, runs a risk of being debarred from homework for any period up to a term. Under the new system, we cannot find fault if a girl does no homework for us; we can only try to

make her desirous of doing it, and we can judge the efficacy of what we have set by the way in which it is received.

Girls must, under this plan, become more individual and less one of a number to us, when it is up to us to find out why So-and-so gives us nothing or why So-and-so, who is really enthusiastic, takes no pains over what she does. We must praise, too, more generously, and encourage more definitely: we must be more enthusiastic ourselves, if all the enthusing is left to us, and not half of it to some outside force; and the girls for their part must come to us more often and more easily, and learn to make us more and more of the company of their friends.

Some two years ago it struck me that a Headmistress, *ex-officio*, necessarily saw very much more of the bad work than of the good work of a school. So, since then, I have been seeing and signing all improved, or promising, or good work, and this has been an interest and a help to me. This new method of voluntary work introduced last September sends me more books, and more people—for, whenever I can, I see the girls with their books—than ever before, and the longer period for a subject on one evening is most certainly producing more worth-while work.

By far the majority of the girls do some work in every subject; most do some in most subjects; no one has done nothing. The girls who do little are still the ones who did little, except under compulsion, before. And this plan is better for their character, because now whatever they do is done of their own free will, and judicious praise and encouragement is winning more even from them. Besides this, many delicate girls, who are doing less homework, are doing better in school.

This system gives any parent a choice between homework and no homework (except the learning-by-heart) or the chance of easily stopping homework for any special reason; and it gives a girl the chance of leaving the whole or some of it, if other school activities (games, matches, clubs, etc.) or home activities necessitate it.

I notice that homework, considered as a privilege, is already much more appreciated, for we reserve to ourselves the right to ask a

girl, who seems unable to give real thought and pains to her work, to leave our subject for a time. I notice too that the girls have seemed more interested and more vigorous generally, especially as they can ask us for different work if they feel that the task set is not the best for them.

In conclusion, though we believe in home-work, we do not believe that it should be stereotyped or burdensome, and we have a greater belief still in opportunities for research and for browsing, for :

What is this Life, if, full of care

We have no time to stand and stare ?

First International Congress on Mental Hygiene Washington, May 5th-10th, 1930

MARY CHADWICK

THE Programme of the First International Congress on Mental Hygiene left no doubt that the rôle of the teacher and that of education not only played a most important part in every aspect of the mental hygiene of young children, but also had, in addition, other aspects of equal value.

It is impossible in a short summary to do justice to all the papers that were presented upon subjects of outstanding interest, by experts who had been gathered from fifty-three countries to give their views upon these extensive problems, and for this reason, it seems more useful to pick out a few of the more constructive subjects which offer points of special suggestiveness.

We may first point out the key reasons why the teacher and her work were regarded of paramount importance. These were expressed mainly under the following chief headings, which also included reasons why she should not be left to pursue her way in methods of mental hygiene merely 'by the light of nature'. The view was stressed that she should be given definite and expert instruction which would enable her to carry out her educational work not only more adequately, but also with less strain to herself; it is no infrequent experience to find teachers who complain that, although they love their work, they find the constant presence of the children exacting, and their perpetual demands on time and patience trying, especially when the children belong to types they class as backward, difficult or maladjusted, socially and emotionally.

1. Therefore, in first place of importance, we learned that the teacher needs a thorough training to enable her to understand *herself*, her psychological make-up, her main instinctual trends, and how these may affect and be affected by those children in her care, by the parents, or by her colleagues and members of her staff.
2. This training will give her a more extensive insight into the mental hygiene problems of childhood, explaining various ways in which emotional and social maladjustment occurs, and not only those arising out of the environment; how they may be prevented or dealt with for improvement. She will increase her knowledge concerning the influence of home and family difficulties upon the life and education inhibitions of children; the meaning of backwardness and precocity, including the problem of the child with outstanding mental ability, who is usually never accorded any particular attention until she can gain applause for her teachers through becoming a show child, the disadvantages that may arise therefrom not being considered.
3. The teacher has often to act in an advisory capacity where home problems are concerned, and hence requires to know some of the chief psychological mechanisms, whence these are most likely to spring, and the difficulties which will prevent parents being always ready to accept her views and advice. This very frequently is useless as a curative method for the parents' neurosis (which is the root of the trouble in most cases), just as advice and nothing else is seldom any lasting cure for nervous trouble; something more far-reaching is required; but it is not easy to get the parents to seek professional help from the right quarter—a medical man, expert in nervous troubles.
4. The teacher has also another function, in many ways closely allied to that mentioned last, which means that special training is particularly

necessary for those in authority at least, a view that was expressed by several speakers at the Congress. Her training was not to be thought complete without at least the rudiments of psychiatry, so that the very earliest manifestations of mental or nervous illness might be detected—not that educational bodies should try to deal with the trouble, but that the children should immediately be referred to expert medical men or women for diagnosis, and treatment if necessary. It was also stated that members of the educational profession had an important work in their hands, in so far as they were frequently in a position to re-educate public opinion in respect of mental and nervous diseases. At present the stigma attaching to any mere suspicion of this type of trouble is so great that parents will hesitate to seek advice for themselves or their children, in case they might find that the illness they dread is present. This delay in seeking advice or treatment often means that a condition which might have been readily curable at the first manifestation, becomes so deeply rooted that the personality of the patient undergoes greater injury and the illness is more difficult to get to respond to treatment.

Among papers which dealt with special problems of child life and difficulty, one already mentioned requires further details: *The Child of Very Superior Intelligence as a Special Problem of Social Adjustment*, by Leta Stetter Hollingworth. She pointed out how often the intelligence of these children was wasted and social maladjustment occurred because they were obliged to mark time educationally to keep pace with less gifted children. This frequently leads to habits of day-dreaming to kill time, or to their developing a superiority complex with regard to their more backward schoolmates, which in later life would cause them to underrate the achievements of all others besides themselves, but to consider that they would of course easily accomplish all that was necessary to excel without any exertion, i.e. over-estimation of their own and under-estimation of the powers or work of others.

The Neurotic Child—Summary

MARY CHADWICK

We have pointed out several dangers that may arise from the too general use of this term, since under it are often, unfortunately, grouped children who suffer from widely-differing neurotic or psycho-pathic conditions.

Why should this present danger?

1. Because many concerned with these children may continue to think of them as representing a single group, with similar symptoms, arising from similar causes, that can be treated by the same remedies, or equally left to out-grow them, without much harm being done, instead of having a clear-cut picture of each variety of nervous trouble, with its own constellation of symptoms, causes, and appropriate treatment.
2. Another danger lies in the lay conception of the term *neurotic*. To many it contains the idea of being a synonym for *unstable*, or purely *naughty* or *uncontrolled*; in this case children will not be given the attention they require as *sick children*.

In surveying work that has already been done upon this problem of the neurotic child, we find that in many instances individuals, as well as institutions and organizations, have dealt with it from their own particular angle, i.e. intellectually retarded children, problem children, delinquent children, etc., but not so often from the angle of sick children who are in

need of treatment that shall be effective from a curative point of view, as well as of diagnosis that might show ways in which the environment ought to be changed.

CLASSIFICATION

How may we classify the groups of neurotic children?

One of the most simple ways in which we may group these children is from the direction of their *conflict*, because I suppose we are all prepared to presume that they have this in common, *conflict*: the specific differences show in the various directions which it takes. Thus:—

- A. *Children whose infantile impulses seek gratification in conflict with early discipline*, i.e. hysteria, conversion and anxiety hysteria.
- B. *Children in conflict with their own infantile impulses*, i.e. obsessional neurosis.
- C. *Child's ego in alliance with infantile impulses in conflict with society and environment*, i.e. criminality and delinquency.
- D. *The child in conflict with reality*, i.e. the introverted, backward child, becoming lost in regressive phantasies, who may afterwards be said to be suffering from early dementia præcox.

CAUSES

Let us consider *the sources* whence these forms of nervous disease may be said to arise ; in so doing I should like to call your attention to the formulation put before us by Freud, of the main pre-disposing causes of neurotic troubles.

1. A constitutional tendency, related to the leading zone, and the distribution of the component infantile impulses.
2. Too great or too early gratification of some infantile impulse, which for this reason cannot be surrendered in the interests of social requirement.
3. Too great or too early deprivation of a component infantile impulse.
4. Too sudden change from gratification to deprivation, owing to alteration in training methods.

In these suggested causes of neurosis, it is impossible to avoid recognising the very important part played by those in charge of the earliest training of the child : nurse, mother, father. And here I should like to stress the point, that the deepest roots of this influence arise from the repressions and conflicts of these persons themselves, their own tendencies or existing neuroses, which will undoubtedly affect the training they pass on to the children in their charge. This I consider to be a point of the utmost value affecting the difficulty of dealing with the problem.

Next may be reckoned the importance of *identification* with the parents, or imitation, and together with this we may remember the tendency of *reaction-formation* and the *impulse to repeat*.

TREATMENT

Let us now consider what may be advised for the treatment of the neurotic child, which shall have as its object *the radical cure of the cause of the trouble, and not merely the removal or alleviation of symptoms*.

To this end a thorough investigation of the direction of the conflict is necessary, and of the sources whence it springs. Amongst these we should not remain satisfied only to note those that lie in the environment, i.e. bad home conditions, neuroses and repressions of parents leading to insufficient impulse gratification in the child, and too severe deprivation, but we

should also try to assess the amount of *repression* and *guilt* present in the child, and whether these have taken the form of *neurotic symptoms*, *reaction-formation* or partial and unsatisfactory *sublimation* as well as learning something of the *phantasies* which the child has built up from the germs of reality.

How is such information to be obtained?

By a form of psycho-analytic treatment, which is made applicable to the age and neurosis of the child in question, through which :

1. Not only is all the information we require to be gained, but it
2. Will also provide for the child, an outlet for repressed emotions, raise too severe repressions, and give healthy ventilation to the phantasies. Another important function of the psycho-analyst will be
3. To supply accurate information upon matters of bodily and sexual functions, and to answer these questions of the child as they arise, compatible with the attempt to give discharge to the phantasies.
4. We should also remember the transference situation, as an essential factor in the treatment of the neurotic child, by which the analyst becomes a new parent-imago, which serves to modify the existing super-ego, through identification, and provides a more tolerant view of life.

These being the chief aims towards which we should work to provide suitable treatment for the neurotic child, it will consequently be clear that the *choice of suitable persons* for the work becomes a matter of considerable importance, as also the question of their *adequate training*. In the first place I should like to point out that the only satisfactory groundwork for psychological work of this description would be the thorough psycho-analysis of the candidate. For knowledge of the fate of the personal infantile impulses, the resolution of or insight into repressions gained, as well as technical experience of the method (which cannot be derived as clearly in any other way), is the only means by which, not only can the problems of the child be adequately dealt with, but also the exceedingly difficult matter of complications often arising from the resistances of the parents to treatment, or during its course, that are the outcome of psychological mechanisms really struggling to keep the child dependent upon the parents.

Questions from Parents and Teachers

Parents and teachers are sometimes faced with situations with which they feel they cannot adequately deal. You are invited to send such 'posers' to us, and when necessary we shall seek the advice of men and women whose work is the study of young children and adolescents. We ask that you send 1s. to cover cost of clerical work involved. Questions sent in by the middle of one month will be answered, if possible, by the beginning of the month following, and those of general interest will be published in the "New Era".

My wife and I have just adopted a baby boy. Ought we to tell him that he is adopted, and, if so, when?

Yes! Most certainly he should be told, and the earlier the better. If you hide the truth from him there is always the danger that he may learn it from some other source. Besides, the very fact that you are hiding something from him may cause a restraint to grow up between him and your wife and yourself. Absolute honesty is always best where children are concerned. Probably the occasion to tell him will be when he asks his first questions about babies and where they come from, if this comes before the age of 4. If not, some suitable occasion must be sought.

If an adopted child grows up knowing the truth about the situation, happy adjustment can be made, but many of the adoption failures are due to the leaking out of the truth in later years with the consequent upheaval and shattering of child beliefs.

E. MILDRED NEVILL

(Psychologist, Frensham Heights School; Psychology Lecturer, Clapham Training College)

Why does she tell lies?

The border-line between make-believe and truth presents mountains of difficulty to every child. A make-believe lion or tiger upon a hearth-rug is highly creditable and desirable in the eyes of the adult. A make-believe person or motor-car accident met when out walking with Nanny, or a make-believe prune stone swallowed, to be like the princess in a story, are lies.

This is beyond the comprehension of the child of the age that is just emerging from phantasy.

The importance of factual facts is a conception that no child can grasp. To a child its feelings are the vivid and important things, and facts are dim and illusory. If a child be asked: 'Were you cross this morning?' it is only very rarely that an untruthful answer will be given, but if the question is 'David, who upset the milk jug?' the mind of the child (being totally unable to understand why it is important that a milk jug should stand upright or lie upon the table) will leap to consequences, and balance in a flash the possible consequences of every answer. Such as: 'If I say I did it, I shan't be allowed to pick blackberries this afternoon', with an immediate vision of the sun and the open air and the blackberries. 'If I say Daddy did it, nothing will happen and we will all go out just the same.

How much nicer for everybody!' And in a flash the answer comes: 'Daddy did it'.

MARGARET LOWENFELD

(Hon. Medical Director, The Children's Clinic, 85 Clarendon Road, London, W.11)

Refusal to obey school routine

School routine appears to a child an order imposed on him by the teacher. If he is negatively disposed towards adults he will refuse to obey the school routine. Although it is impossible to apply the same rule to all children it is fairly safe to say that, in nine cases out of ten, the best way of dealing with the negativism is to allow the child to experience the effect of his refusal. The less conflict there is with the adult, the better. The child should be warned beforehand what will be the inevitable result of his refusal to conform, e.g. that if he does not come in from the garden to get ready for lunch at the right time and is therefore late, he cannot be given his food. This done, the child should be treated like the others when the time comes and be ignored, not nagged at, when he refuses to obey. A refusal to conform to almost any point of routine brings about its own consequences; if this occurs automatically without a direct personal conflict with the teacher, the child soon realizes that he is up against an inevitable 'order of things' and not the illwill of an adult directed against him. He will also realize that life is more satisfactory if he conforms to that order.

H. BEATRIX TUDOR-HART

(Directrice, The Children's Group Nursery School, London, N.W.3)



The International People's College at Elsinore, Denmark, which holds Vacation Courses throughout the summer, have arranged a specially interesting course for August. Sir Rabindranath Tagore will be at the College from the 1st to the 10th, and will speak, and Professor H. J. Fleure of Aberystwyth is another of the lecturers. Speakers from Germany and Scandinavia will lecture on education and culture in the northern countries. The Workers' Travel Association, Transport House, Smith Square, London, S.W.1, are sending out a party on 8th August who will return on the 23rd, but arrangements can still be made for anyone to go out separately after the 8th. The Course continues until the end of the month.

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 64

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION: 29TH
YEARBOOK, REPORT ON ARITHMETIC
EDUCATION—A POLICY
CAMPING AND CHARACTER
THE SCHOOL JOURNEY RECORD

Books Received

DOES CIVILIZATION NEED RELIGION? *A Study in the Social Resources and Limitations of Religion in Modern Life.* Reinold Niebuhr. The Macmillan Co., New York City, \$2.00.

THE STORY OF CIVILIZATION THROUGH THE AGES. Charles Richet, *Ex-professor of Physiology in the University of Paris ; Member of the Institute.* Translated by Fred Rothwell. With a Foreword by Sir Oliver Lodge. George Allen & Unwin, 3s. 6d.

POLAND, GERMANY AND THE CORRIDOR. Casimir Smogorzewski. Maps. Williams & Norgate, 6s.

NEW AGE GEOGRAPHIES, BOOK I : AT HOME. L. D. and E. C. Stamp. Longmans, Green, 1s. 6d.

CLASS BOOKS OF WORLD HISTORY, BOOK IV : MANKIND THE CONQUEROR. Helen Corke. Oxford University Press, 3s. 6d.

FUNDAMENTAL ENGLISH, JUNIOR SERIES, BOOKS 3 and 4, and TEACHER'S BOOK 3. P. B. Ballard, M.A., D.Litt. University of London Press. Book 3—Paper cover, 1s. ; limp cloth, 1s. 2d. ; Teacher's—Limp cloth, 2s. 3d. Book 4—Paper cover, 1s. 2d. ; limp cloth, 1s. 4d.

BRITISH JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY, GENERAL SECTION. Vol. XX, Part 4, April 1930. Cambridge University Press, 10s. 6d.

THE BEHAVIOUR OF YOUNG CHILDREN, BOOKS I and II. *Eating, Sleeping, Dressing, Toilet, Washing.* Ethel B. Waring and Marguerite Wilker. With an Introduction by Patty Smith Hill. Charles Scribner's Sons, \$1.00 each.

THE LINO CUT IN ELEMENTARY, SECONDARY, ART AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS. Preface by F. J. Glass, A.M.C., F.R.S.A., Headmaster of Doncaster School of Art and Crafts. Berlin-London, Heintze & Blanckertz, 3s.

THROUGH THE GATEWAY. *A Book of Stories, Poems and Pageants.* Compiled by Florence B. Boeckel, 'in the hope that it may help children learn how to live happily in an interdependent world'. The Macmillan Co., New York City.

CRITIQUE OF LOVE. Fritz Wittels.

George Allen & Unwin, 12s. 6d.

International Notes

Fil. mag. Gustaf Mattsson, who is the President of the Swedish section of the N.E.F., has received a scholarship to Teachers College, and will leave for the States in September for one year. Herr Mattsson hopes to study particularly under Dr. Rugg, and to work with him on the Curriculum Research Commission—a Commission of great importance for the future of forward-looking schools.



Miss Clare Soper, International Secretary at N.E.F. Headquarters, London, is spending a few months at the Headquarters of Progressive Education Association, 10 Jackson Place, Washington, to help forward the work of affiliation between the two bodies. She is being very cordially entertained and welcomed with their usual hospitality by American friends, and is fulfilling a number of speaking and other engagements.



Mr. A. J. Lynch, Headmaster of West Green School, Tottenham, London, has been invited to lecture on the Dalton Plan during the Educational Week being held in August in Esthonia, mention of which is made below.



South Africa

We are very glad to note that one of the Fellowship's supporters, Dr. E. G. Malherbe, has been appointed by the Union Government head of the first national bureau of South Africa.

Dr. C. T. Loram, another prominent supporter of the Fellowship, who was Native Commissioner, has now been appointed to the Educational Department in Natal.



Owing to congestion of English Parliamentary business, the Bill for raising the school-leaving age has been dropped, but the Prime Minister (Right Hon. J. Ramsay MacDonald) hopes to introduce a Bill in the next sessions.



Professor Sir Percy Nunn's address on his election as President at the Annual Meeting of the English Section of the Fellowship, *The New Education and the English Tradition*, may be obtained from the Hony. Secretary, English Section, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1, price 3d.



A society was formed last summer at Elsinore by teachers in rural schools from ten different countries, with the purpose of organising future work in state rural schools. Until a properly constituted association has been formed, Herr Wilhelm Kircher, Haus

in der Sonne, Isert, Post Eichelhardt, Westerwald, Germany, is acting as the central co-ordinator. An attempt is being made to utilise Herr Kircher's radio experience in making wireless the means of communication in the association, if possible from a central broadcasting station. Herr Kircher appeals to all teachers in English-speaking rural schools to send him accounts of work along 'new' lines, treating particularly of individual and group work; the organization of the plan of studies in one-teacher schools; auto-educative material for separate groups; and students' libraries.

The securing of parental co-operation is considered very important. International exchange of ideas is particularly valuable, since each nation necessarily looks at problems from a special viewpoint. The different outlooks throw light on problems, give vitality to them, and break down barriers.

This international society is concerned only with the reform of *state* rural schools in search of proper methods, with drawing attention to their special problems, and with showing them possible solutions for these.



All books in favour of war have been abolished from school libraries in Austria.



The Esthonian Union of Teachers is organising a School Reform Exhibition in connection with an Educational Week, to be held from 12th to 26th August, in Tallinn. The Exhibition and Week will present a survey of the achievements of progressive education and of the advance in school organization being made by Esthonia. The Dalton Plan, tests, self-government, school journeys, parent-teacher co-operation, will be among the subjects studied.



The Third academic year of the Postgraduate Institute of International Studies, Geneva, will open on 27th October. The Institute exists to meet the long-felt need of a permanent postgraduate school of international studies at the seat of the League of Nations, and instruction is given in political, legal, economic and social subjects of an international character. There is no preconceived doctrine or propagandist aim: the sole purpose is to promote progress through impartial and scientific observation, teaching and research. For further particulars write to the Secretary, 5 Promenade du Pin, Geneva.



The International Bureau of Education (B.I.E.), Geneva, is conducting research into the working and value of self-government in schools, and has also appointed commissions to inquire into the relative merits of individual and group teaching. The



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Bureau would welcome accounts from any readers of the *New Era* of their experience of self-government; these should be sent to the Secretary, B.I.E., 44 rue des Maraîchers.



The International Educational Cinematographic Institute at Rome has issued a preliminary draft of the international convention for the abolition of customs barriers against educational films.



The Fourth Biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations will be held in 1931 in the United States.



Mental Hygiene Congress

Papers that were of outstanding interest :—

Mental Hygiene in the Training of Teachers—W. Carson Ryan, Jr.

School-Home Relationships—V. T. Thayer.

Education of the Pre-School Child (Nursery School)—Helen Woolley, Ph.D.

Mental Hygiene of Childhood—W. E. Blatz, M.D.

Social Maladjustments (Emotional) in the Intellectually Normal—Marion E. Kenworthy, M.D.

The Child of Very Superior Intelligence as a Special Problem of Social Adjustment—Leta S. Hollingworth, Ph.D.

Sex and Civilisation—Dr. Otto Kauders.

The Family as a Constructive Force in Mental Hygiene—Porter R. Lee.

The Significance of the Home in the Personality and Character-Development of the Adolescent—Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg.

Training for the Profession of Parenthood—Lawson G. Lowrey.

Child Guidance and Psycho-analysis—Dr. Bernard Glueck.

The Neurotic Child—Mary Chadwick, S.R.N.



An interesting experiment in the field of vocational adjustment is being carried out in New York by The Vocational Adjustment Bureau for Girls, located at 336 East 19th Street.

The Bureau maintains a therapeutic-industrial workroom for the rehabilitation of nervous girls. This workroom forms a bridge, as it were, between recovery from mental illness and re-entrance into industry. In some cases it has functioned as a preventive measure, and commitment to a hospital or sanatorium has been either delayed or made unnecessary.

The purpose of the Bureau is to try to adjust the weak or the unequipped who have their own living to make, to the vocational world. It will attempt to work in co-operation with the state schools.



In September, 1931, a new college for women is to be opened at Bennington, Vermont. It is to be experimental from the beginning, and to try out experiments that elsewhere are piecemeal and scattered. The work of the first two years is to consist of introductory 'orientation' courses relating to the culture of an epoch. The last two years will be conducted either as honours courses or on the Harvard system of concentration, with emphasis on individual and group conferences in one of the four fields of science, literature, social studies and fine arts.

The students are to be grouped in houses. A long winter vacation is to be devoted to travel or the study of the advantages of city life. There is no mention of a general examination.

Particulars may be had from Mr. Robert D. Leigh, President, Bennington College, 109 East 73rd Street, New York City.



The Committee for Ben Shemen, the village community near Tel-Aviv in Palestine, which is entirely run by orphan Jewish children, drawn in large measure from Russia, showed privately an excellent film of the community, its members and their work, in London recently. The children work at whatever occupation appeals to them most, in the garden, the fields, the house. All work for the community, which is run as a business with its own funds and banking arrangements. The children are paid by the community (themselves) for all work they do, so that they are self-supporting from the start. Vegetable produce is sold to shopkeepers.

Children leave the community at the age of 18, every one so far having obtained a situation; they return, later on, to put in one year's gratis work in the community as payment for their upbringing and education. In the schoolrooms they learn the theory of what they practise in their work, and round off their practical knowledge of their chosen occupation.

The impression made by the film was of a hive of industry, and the appearance of the children, and their simple, almost Spartan life, left a memory of fitness, alertness and happiness in work that was the best testimonial to the devotion of Dr. Siegfried Lehmann, the founder. The address of the Committee is 61 Dartmouth Road, London, N.W.2, and the Secretary is Miss Jacobson, from whom all interested may obtain particulars.



A Montessori Summer School will be held at Studio House, Rosslyn Hill, London, N.W.3, from 5th to 16th August, under the direction of Mr. Claude A. Claremont. Particulars from the Secretary.

Book Reviews

Twenty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education: Report on Arithmetic. *Public Schools Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.*

Teachers of arithmetic will find a fund of useful information in this Report. Part I is devoted to 'Some Aspects of Modern Thought on Arithmetic', and deals in a very detailed and reasoned manner with curriculum, method, training of teachers, social value of arithmetic, &c. Perhaps the outstanding feature of Part I is the chapter on Curriculum in which grave doubt is expressed towards the present tendency in America to reduce the amount of arithmetic taught in schools. Many English teachers, familiar with American methods, will find themselves in agreement with the report, since it has often been urged that the principle of 'Social Utility', as usually adopted as a basis of selecting curriculum content, is not altogether sufficient.

Part II is concerned with arithmetic research, and contains much that is new. With typical American thoroughness, the committee have collected results of researches into most of the difficulties connected with the teaching and learning of each branch of the subject, and since a chapter has been devoted to each of these, the report can be used as an indexed guide to assist teachers in their own and their children's problems.

Education: A Policy. *National Association of Labour Teachers.* 3d.

In its later phase the Labour Party itself is unlikely to publish any far-reaching reviews of educational problems. It is well, therefore, that teachers who profess Labour principles should make independent contributions to educational thought. The value of this current pamphlet is that it emphasizes the individuality of the child. In the primary school he will find outlets for his natural activity, while the secondary school will be a miniature University in which all sides of his nature will find stimulus and encouragement. Thus, the pamphlet is addressed as much to teachers as to administrators, and in this lies much of its value.

Camping and Character. By H. S. Dimock and C. E. Hendry. *Association Press, New York City.* \$3.50.

In *Camping and Character* the authors have made a detailed survey of the possibilities which exist in this big American holiday camp for developing 'the ideals, appreciations, attitudes, abilities and habits which are essential for effective participation in social life'.

The problems discussed are not new ones. Many of them are common to democracy. Most can be found

in the life of any community. The real interest of the book lies in the careful scientific study of the effects of simple communal life on different types of children. The study is founded on personal observations carefully recorded and on judgments carefully appraised.

The section which deals with the methods of recording and estimating results may seem almost too detailed for the ordinary reader. An educator, or anyone who may be considering the inclusion of some form of camp life in his scheme for citizenship training, will probably find it deeply interesting. Of much more general interest are the chapters which deal with the importance of the controlling factors—the part played by the relations with parents; the personality of the Camp Director; the instructors; and the boy leaders. The description of some of the 'typical problem cases' will be read with sympathy and appreciation by anyone to whom the rather difficult child is an object of affection and sympathy.

As Professor Kilpatrick says in his interesting introduction, 'the ordinary school is highly traditional and often forgetful of its educational purpose, the Camp is a new venture'. Any grown-up who has camped with children realises that the great value of the camp lies in its being an ad-venture, and knows that the gaining and keeping of a sense of the adventure in life will contribute much to the future happiness of the adult.

The reading of *Camping and Character* should do much to open the fascinating realm of camp life to any parents who still need to be convinced of the benefits of this form of educational training. And as a handbook on camping life it should have a place on the bookshelves of many educators and youth leaders. It is well arranged, with numerous reproductions of the reports, graphs, tables, etc. used for recording the results of the training, and the photographs of the children add a human touch.

The School Journey Record, 1930. *The School Journey Association.* Members, free; extra copies, 1s.; non-members, 2s. 6d.

The School Journey Association has a membership of nearly four thousand teachers from 1,600 schools of every type at home and abroad. It is hardly surprising, therefore, that the *Record* for 1930 should contain much interesting as well as valuable material: details of insurance schemes and railway facilities, lists of historic buildings in charge of H.M. Office of Works, and a record of home and foreign school journeys made in 1929, including the name of the school, head teacher, teacher-in-charge, and destination of the party. There are descriptions of a number of journeys, diagrams, maps and illustrations.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

THE word 'Project' is becoming more common in our educational terminology, but the concept for which it stands is in one sense not new. Both individual and collective projects have long been employed in English schools. The boy who plans the making of a boat, or the girl who dresses a doll, is carrying out a project, i.e. a purposeful act. The staging of a play, with all its incidental activities, is a collective project.

Why, then, in England are we beginning to hear of the 'Project method' as an educative method distinct from the Dalton plan or the Montessori method? Perhaps because the term is commonly employed in America to denote an educational concept based on the philosophy of Dewey, that education should be considered as life itself, and not as a preparation for later living. This conception of education is reinforced by all modern psychology. The psychology of wholeness has demonstrated that real growth can be achieved only as an integral whole. A child's natural interests should lead him to the experiences which promote growth. Thorndike has said that 50 per cent of the technique a child must learn can be correlated with the interests of childhood. From these types of experience a child gathers the material that as an individual he requires for physical, emotional, intellectual, social and spiritual growth; this material is translated into powers and capacities, and into personality. He learns to read, to write, to master number, to draw, to sew, to do handwork, because he himself needs these forms of skill as means of self-expression.

This conception is very different from that which regards education as the imparting of subject matter, and it is therefore in opposition to any method or plan which presents subject

matter as such. The opposition is between subject matter as the primary objective and the organic growth of the child as secondary, and the organic growth of the child as the primary objective and the acquisition of subject matter as secondary.

There is no one method of using projects. In America, where projects are becoming generally used in all progressive state or private schools, for the education of children up to twelve, they are used sometimes as the chief medium of learning, and sometimes partially for a certain period of the day, or for certain subjects. Occasionally, they are used for the whole year's work of a particular standard or form. They are sometimes chosen by the teacher, in which case a logical development of subject matter can be more easily attained, and a definite plan made for the ground to be covered in successive years.

For instance, in one school (as mentioned by Miss Davis in her article, page 77), the general syllabus might specify that the six-year-olds would learn the techniques suitable to six-year-olds through the medium of a project on Red Indians; the seven-year-olds through building up, either on the floor of the classroom or in the playground, a model village with its community life and its village store; the eight-year-olds through a project on Greek life. Or the project may be chosen by the class, the teacher discovering at the beginning of the school session the dominant interests of the majority, as shown in Miss Chambers' article, page 90. It might be a project on transport, a fascinating subject to most young children, particularly to boys. Or it might be a local interest, such, for instance, as I saw in California, where the children had suggested a study of citrus fruits.

Professor Kilpatrick, in his pamphlet on the project method*, defines this method as the use of the 'purposeful act in the educative process', or 'whole-hearted purposeful activity proceeding in a social environment'. He classifies the different types of project as follows:—

Type one: Where the purpose is to embody some idea or plan in external form, as, building a boat, writing a letter, presenting a play.

Type two: Where the purpose is to enjoy some æsthetic experience, as, listening to a story, hearing a symphony, appreciating a pleasure.

Type three: Where the purpose is to straighten out some intellectual difficulty, to solve some problem, such as to find out whether or not dew falls, to ascertain how New York outgrew Philadelphia.

Type four: Where the purpose is to obtain some item or degree of skill or knowledge, as, learning to write or learning the French irregular verbs.

In Europe, the Decroly method is very similar to the project method. Dr. Decroly believes that the basic interests of a child are those of primitive man—shelter, food, clothing—and he uses these as the centres of interest. It can readily be seen that any one of the three would provide ample opportunity for acquiring the elementary skills.† Such methods necessitate considerable changes in the furnishing and arranging of the classroom. Tables and chairs are very much better for young children than ordinary desks, but desks can be rearranged to break up the usual formal plan and to make more floor-space where building on the floor, connected with the project, can be done. If the size of the room permits, a corner should be given over to a wood-work bench. If not, there should be ready access to the craft-shop. For the six-, seven- and eight-year-olds there must be plenty of material with which to build children's life-size wigwams, model villages, dolls' house, station, as shown in the illustrations on pages 80 and 81. For the older children there must be many books and children's encyclopædias and reference books, also a plentiful supply of

pictures, illustrations and postcards. This method generally presupposes that all subjects for the younger children are taken by one teacher who is able, therefore, not only to weave them round the centre of interest, but also to guide the child so that there is no danger of an incomplete mastery of any one technique.

Careful records are necessary of the amount of time spent by the individual children on reading, writing and number, for, while to the children the project is the primary objective, the teacher must keep in mind mastery of and achievement in the three R's.

If a special teacher—for example, an art or a woodwork teacher—is connected with this particular class, either the specialist should come to the classroom, or the classroom teacher accompany the children to the specialist's room, so that the art or craft work may be an integral part of the whole project, and not a subject in a water-tight compartment divorced from the other classroom work.

It will readily be seen that the main weakness of the project method is that it might lead to incomplete mastery of the fundamental skills and thus seriously handicap a child at a later stage of the school career. Such things as punctuation, multiplication tables, French verbs, Latin conjugations, must be mastered, but very often a teacher can introduce these as supplementary drills which will arouse a child's interest and become as purposeful an act as building a wigwam or dressing a doll. At Winnetka, Dr. Carleton Washburne has evolved a method by which the fundamental drills are learned individually through the Winnetka Technique, planned for this purpose, and the socialized activities take the form of projects. We shall have an article in a future issue from Dr. Washburne, describing this experiment.

As a general rule, projects are considered most suitable as the chief method of learning for children up to twelve, but in America they are becoming more and more used in the Junior High Schools for children from twelve to fifteen, particularly along the lines of Dr. Harold Rugg's Social Studies. One would imagine that projects would be of considerable use in the English type of reorganized schools. They are less used in the High School proper,

**The Project Method*, by Prof. W. H. Kilpatrick, Teachers College, Columbia University.

†*La Méthode Decroly*, by A. Hamaïde, Niestlé S. A., Paris.

and it is debatable whether they ever will be used entirely in these. Professor Sir Percy Nunn, speaking on this subject, said he was inclined to think that the place for the centre of interest method was definitely in the Junior School, and that he believed that at the end of school there should be the old-fashioned logical treatment of a subject, a systematic exploration, and that young people should have that old discipline of systematic, logical thinking.

This would mean that the organization of the curriculum at the beginning of school would be a transverse classification round about topics, and at the end the old vertical classification in terms of subjects. It does not mean, however, that even in a secondary school, more projects cannot continually be introduced, particularly in the extra-curriculum activities, in the form of plays, school journeys, building up of a library, school concerts, pageants etc. It is probable that we shall see changes in the curriculum which will correlate the humanities on the one side, and sciences and mathematics on the other, for it is obvious that modern psychology cannot regard the present water-tight compartments as contributing to the growth of capacities or of following the laws of learning. There is room for a great deal of experimental work along these lines on the curriculum, which is unfortunately much hampered in England by the present type of examinations, as shown particularly by common entrance and matriculation. These to-day form a definite barrier to the adoption of newer methods of teaching, and to more common-sense methods of treatment of subject matter in secondary and in preparatory schools.

A very common error is being made in Europe in regarding the Project method and the Dalton plan as entirely different. The Dalton plan is not primarily an educational method, but is a social change in a school. It has been the first step in breaking up ordinary class teaching and it is interesting to note how this breaking up of formal teaching often liberates in the school a spirit that encourages further steps on the road to freedom. But when Miss Parkhurst evolved the Dalton plan she was steeped in the Dewey philosophy of education, which had been so generally accepted in America that she did not stress it in her book. In her own

school, the Dalton School, New York City, projects are commonly used in the Junior School.

Another common mistake concerning the Dalton plan is in supposing that it consists almost entirely of individual work, and that therefore good teaching quality in a teacher is wasted. This is not so. In all good modern teaching, the individual learning process, where the child has to acquire matter in his own way and at his own rate, and where through individual methods he can learn how to tackle a piece of work for himself, how to plan his own time, how to discipline himself, is employed.

But collective teaching also plays a part where the children are able in a social group to learn from each other and to stimulate each other. Dalton plan and Project can be complementary: both help to break down the old, formal class teaching.

There is, however, a fundamental opposition between the Project method as understood by the Dewey-Kilpatrick school of thought, and individual work of small children through apparatus designed with the sole purpose of teaching the three R's. One wishes that teachers were not so prone to accept a system as a whole, but would rather study the new psychological approach to the process of learning as distinct from that of teaching, and look upon the newer experimental methods, not as opposing systems, but as suggestions from which they can take fragments out of which to weave methods suited to their own needs.

We have noticed among many of our summer visitors this year, a use of terms such as 'Dalton', 'individual work', 'assignments', 'self-government', 'Decroly method', and a desire to see the exact way to carry these out, which appears to us dangerous, and symbolizing that human error of attempting to dogmatize and crystallize, and thus merely exchange one set of shibboleths for another.

The new spirit that is working in education is something far more vital than a change in methods or dogmas; it is nothing less than the new social spirit that is working throughout the world to-day, and that must be and is being translated into education. We should certainly find new methods, but we should beware lest, in following the letter, we lose the spirit that inspired it.

Sir Rabindranath Tagore on The Secret Places of the Soul

SIR Rabindranath Tagore, whose years of work in India as Headmaster of his school, Santiniketan, Bolpur, Bengal, is, perhaps, not sufficiently realised by those all over the world—even educators—to whom he is known as poet and mystic, very kindly granted an interview to the *New Era* during his short visit to England this summer.

He spoke of the basis upon which in Santiniketan he has placed the fostering of the religious spirit, and which he is convinced is the only real basis from which true Religion—the sense of inner power—can spring.

Tagore has put into practice the ideals with which the West has inspired him, for he derived much of his cultural background from the romantic poets of England, finding in their pantheism something that corresponded to the pantheism of India. It is just this understanding of Western culture, and the sense of it as a part of himself, that makes Tagore, as an educator, so valuable a link between the East and the West. There is much in his religious views that could not only be incorporated in the teaching of religion in Western schools, but could also be assimilated by the Western world in general.

Tagore is now an old man, the vigour of his days past. But he retains and still at times shows in astonishing measure, that power and strength which he derives from his own religious nature and habits, cultivated in times of quiet con-

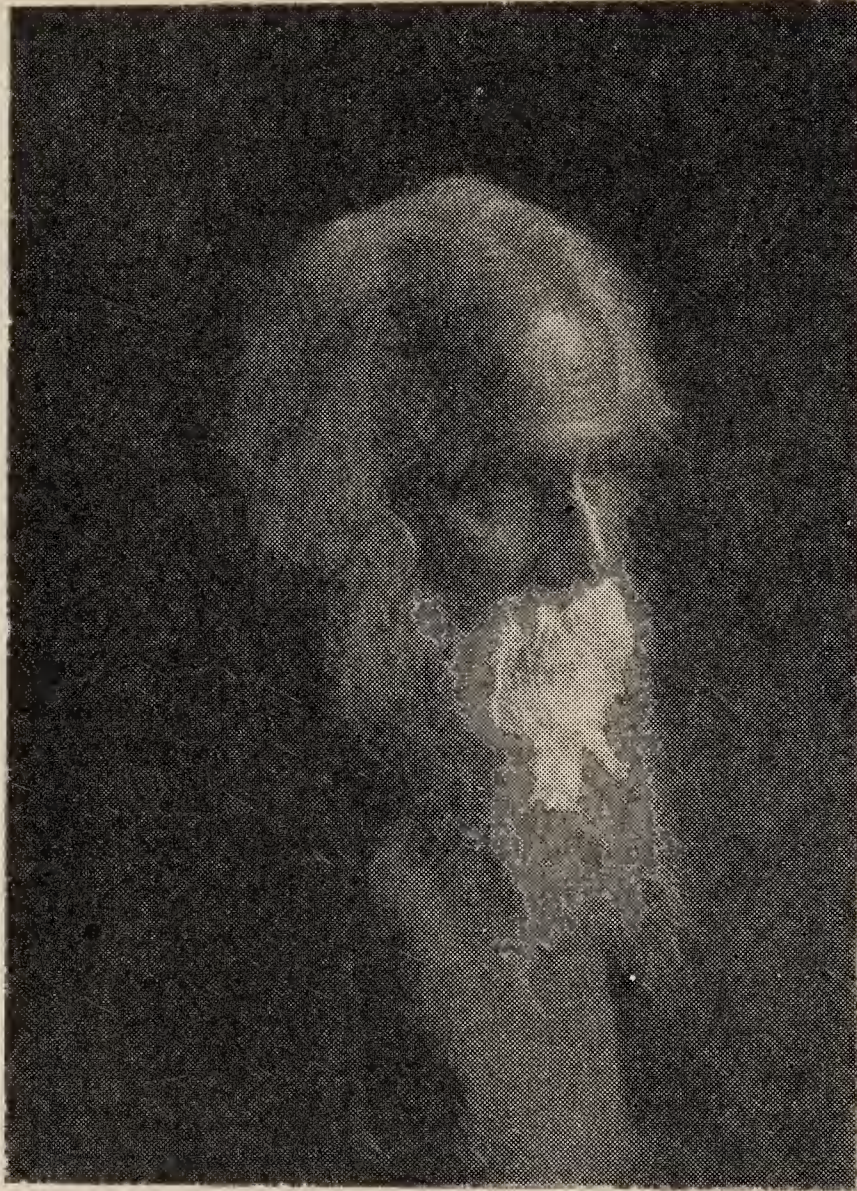
templation and withdrawal from the press of life, a power and strength that he would have us, as parents and teachers, foster in the youth of all nations. His message, therefore, is one that all should find of value and help, for it concerns a part of education full of difficulty, especially

for Western peoples. It outlines what has proved of worth in his own life and in the lives of the children under his care.

‘Religion, to the Western peoples’, he said, ‘includes, almost solely, theologies and dogmas, philosophies and the things of the intellect. For these different outward aspects there can be and are, specialists. For these things can be taught. But true religion cannot be taught; it cannot be imparted in classes; it cannot be reasoned about. One is aware of it; one perceives it, knows it, in one’s own soul.’

‘In India we believe that religion can be fostered only through contact with those who have arrived at spiritual fulfilment, for though

religion indeed has its intellectual side, it is a great deal more than only of the intellect. It is an atmosphere created by those who in quietness have developed their own soul—yet an atmosphere not felt by everyone. The fundamental urge to religion must be there in the young soul first of all. It is really not necessary that religion be talked of, for the spirit of the teacher will search out those children ready to be helped. Yet it may be talked of, for by these



Sir Rabindranath Tagore



A Class at Santiniketan, Bolpur, Bengal

means some in whom the fundamental urge is not so strong, may be brought to understand and to desire and to know.

‘Religion can be fostered also by reading, for, like the poetic mind, the religious mind is stimulated by reading, and some will be benefited. This reading should not be theological, but chosen passages of inspiring words spoken by those who themselves have been inspired—a selection from the great prophets and teachers of the world.

‘There are two parallel lines of spiritual development: meditation, and active service. Through meditation the life is tuned. But if the life remains subjective, one can never be sure of it—it may vanish. So there must be some time for daily practice, for active service dedicated to God; some sacrifice in the name of God, something done which is not for one’s own self, but is for others and their welfare.

‘I have given my boys certain immortal texts from ancient Scriptures to form the gist of their meditation. There should be at least fifteen minutes morning and evening for meditation

and brooding, for trying to understand the texts, for silent consideration of them, and for trying to assimilate them. This meditation cannot be a subject of examination: one cannot pry into the secrets of the soul, into the thoughts and feelings.

‘The morning Assembly that is the rule in many Western schools could be made of great value if some minutes out of the time were set apart for absolute silence on the part of all. The children should be taught to clear their minds of all mundane thoughts and interests, to open the doors and windows of their soul to let the Light pour in, to bathe their hearts in that atmosphere of peace and power that is created by collective meditation, by moments of silence all together, the atmosphere that is true Prayer. They should be taught that it is not necessary to think definite thoughts on religion or religious subjects. It is the laying bare of mind, heart and soul to the influences of the spirit by the clearing away of all thoughts and ideas, and moreover, the doing this by a number of people all gathered together for

that one purpose, that generates this power that descends into all the waiting hearts and fills them with strength.

'There must be classes in religion, certainly, but attendance at these should never be compulsory in schools. If possible, bring all the children under the influence of a religious atmosphere, for one cannot know in whom a natural aptitude for religion is lying dormant. In this it is, again, like poetry—desirable for all, yet the gift not to all.

'In secular education children go through preliminary tests in order to discover their bent. One has to place many different subjects and interests before them in order to find out what makes special appeal to each. So all boys and girls should be brought into a religious atmosphere; the ones then to whom this spiritual attitude of mind is natural will be drawn to it. Some, you will find, will be unaffected by it: they will be unable to concentrate on things of the spirit, and they ought to be released. The inborn gift will be found in only a few in any school, and no child should be required or forced to concentrate his thoughts on these things.

'There should be special teachers for religion. Ordinary teachers are not able to nurse and foster the true religious sense—only those who themselves have felt the urge, are *aware*, and have given their spirit opportunity to grow strong and mount up through quiet contemplation and active service. So the boys and girls

in whom religion is a gift, who have talent in spiritual things, should be selected for training as teachers in religion. These can be of great service to humanity.

'In places for the training of religious teachers of any kind we find a motley of individuals, people who are not persuaded in their own minds. And as untruths and hypocrisies should never be cultivated in religion or towards God, these people can do much harm. All who enter religion should believe the truths they have to teach, should hear in their soul the call of religious things.

'These boys and girls who show aptitude and who hanker after the Infinite should, as I have said, be cultivated and helped, for they should be the teachers of religion. The ideal would be to take them away to some place possessing a religious atmosphere, which is associated with a life truly lived, where peace and truth was found—a place where the whole atmosphere is imbued with a personality, where the inspiration of some great and good man lingers. Such a place I have found in Santiniketan. But they are rare.

'Nature's own beauty, freedom of mind, daily meditation and practice, service, some sacrifice, these chosen ones should have and make that they may fit themselves and be fitted to teach religion in schools and in the world, and to truly nurse and feed the Divine flame wherever it may be found.'

Contributors to this Issue

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NELLY WOLFFHEIM is Head of a private Kindergarten in Berlin, and contributes to educational and psychological journals and to leading German newspapers. She is the authoress of several books, among them *Psychoanalytische Kindergarten Pädagogik*, and is at present engaged on an educational book for mothers.

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ELIZABETH INGRAM takes up her duties as headmistress of a school in Staffordshire this autumn. The experiment she describes was worked by her while a student at Stockwell Training College, London.

NELL CURTIS is a member of the staff of Ojai Valley School, California, and the author of several books on the Project method.

MARION A. BALLOW is Academic Head, and HARRIET B. WALKER is a member of the Staff of Mt. Vernon Seminary, Washington, D.C.

The Clash Between the Generations

NELLY WOLFFHEIM

IT is a well-known fact that there is a certain clash between one generation and another—between parents and children. And it is erroneous to think that this antagonism first became apparent in our own times. In ancient history we find instances of the rivalry between father and son, mother and daughter—a rivalry upon which many an old myth is based. Antagonisms between the generations are less strongly in evidence to-day, for our advance in culture has relegated them to the unconscious, with the result that they cannot be so easily detected. If we now consider them more important than we did a short time ago, it is because much that respect for authority used to repress is being more freely voiced; and because our present-day knowledge of what goes on beneath the surface of life is showing us these problems in a different light.

All who have in any way to do with education almost without exception would like a child to be as they think he should be, and on this basis is built up that attitude that may be described as *against-the-child*, who early learns that he must submit. This feeling of being weaker gives rise in him to strong feelings of inferiority which, in conjunction with the feelings of being blameworthy that originate in earliest childhood, contribute towards repression. But side by side with the idea of inferiority grows an impulse of *protest*, an impulse to defend himself against authority, so that even in the earliest stages of development opposition to authority becomes apparent.

Early feelings of inferiority and of opposition show themselves especially strongly when the gulf between the parents (and adults in general) and the young child is emphasized. In older methods of education this gulf was fixed as a matter of course, but to-day we hear less about it. For a child to-day wants to be like his parents, wants to be their equal, measures himself by them, compares himself with them, strives to attain the ideal they constitute for him. If we keep him under too much, his relations to his environment will be warped, and we shall run the risk either of causing him to grow up abso-

lutely submissive and inferior, or the exact opposite, aggressive—a condition that in later adolescence especially, develops into lifelong opposition to others.

Because of this, as well as for many other reasons, it is very desirable that a child should grow up with *other children*, and be able to find his level among different types of children. Among children, a child does not appear to himself as *little*, and is not always over against someone stronger than himself. Children, even though they squabble and fight, understand each other better than we adults can understand them. If we are frank with ourselves, we must admit that children are often incomprehensible to us and that our educational measures are often bows drawn at a venture.

Moreover, children do not understand adults; it is only natural that they cannot grasp the real meaning of our educational endeavours, for adults see other results to actions, and their experience leads them to conclusions that are far removed from the mind of a child.

All educational issues depend on how well or how ill we understand to solve this problem of antagonism and mutual opposition. It is possible to reconcile the *ideal* to be striven after—for a child wants to grow, to become like, to reach outward and upward—with *comradeship*, i.e. with a relationship that will be free from the stigma of superiority and patronage.

The developing individual must actually himself achieve his own knowledge. There is something in a child that drives him to find out for himself, to carry through for himself, to explore and examine for himself. Too much advice and tutelage restrict and irritate.

The uncommunicativeness and so-called reserve found in many children generally is founded on a feeling of not being understood, which has its origin in the *inability* of the adult to understand. What we can—and must—do, is to take children and their inward conflicts seriously. Knowledge of being well thought of and respected is an absolute necessity to a child.

How much deference and consideration we adults require of a child! But how little consideration we pay in return to his occupations and play, how lightheartedly we disturb him! To an adult, what a child is doing seems on principle small and unimportant. Our inconsiderateness is due not to any lack of love for him but to our wrong adjustment to him. Contrasts are always emphasized, similarities too little noticed, in the mutual relations of adults and children. Those engaged in the upbringing of children are obsessed by the idea that they must play a part. They are afraid of losing their influence if they venture to show themselves as faulty mortals. But a day always comes when children see through this procedure, and they often feel they have been deceived; then they lose trust in their environment. The irritation and insubordination of growing children often springs from this source.

During adolescence too much of the *teacher* attitude erects barriers. The super-sensitiveness of the adolescent that is caused by his feeling weaker, makes him detect in everything an encroachment on his liberty. Adolescent youth lives in a kind of 'corridor'—the 'intermediate world' of Louis Andreas-Salomé. They feel themselves no longer children, strive after being grown-up, but find the proper connection very difficult to make, and suffer from a feeling of not-yet-arrivedness.

The inner emancipation of a child from his parents is, of course, an absolute necessity at this time. It may almost be considered a neurotic symptom if he does not strike off on his own line of development, and show himself brusquely independent and contrary during this period of stress and storm.

Mothers find it particularly difficult to reconcile themselves to this emancipation, especially those who live only for their children, making them the pivot of their lives. Their reason tells them that their children must strike out for themselves, but with the best will in the world, their feelings receive a hurt difficult to get over. When mothers sacrifice themselves too much, the feeling of guilt in the children when this process of emancipation set in, becomes correspondingly strong, so that antagonism—perhaps unconscious—arises between them.

We must realise quite clearly that the unconscious influences family relationships very considerably. It is no coincidence that the children of parents with a strong leaning, for example, towards intellectual things show as strong a bias towards practical things. It is the reaction. The difficulties that are often found in sons of famous fathers can also be traced to the same source. When children choose the same profession as their father's, difficulties of various kinds, rivalry, and jealousy are nearly always present.

The unconscious also strongly influences the mutual relations of mother and grown-up daughters. The comparatively young mother often feels aggrieved that she has to make way for them; this grudge is certainly one of the causes of the most ordinary difficulties between mother and daughters.

Recognising these clashes between the generations to be inevitable since the tendency is inherent in nature, it is as well if the older generation can cultivate a measure of fatalism in order to reconcile themselves to the facts. The *managing* type of education achieves still less with the adolescent than with the little child. Hardly anything can be done with the boy or girl who in early days has not been given a sure guiding principle in life. A certain urge to self-dependence makes the adolescent reject parental management, and all those from whose path obstacles are removed either by advice or by rules, suffer injury. If they do not succeed in freeing themselves by adopting an aggressive and contrary attitude, they will take refuge in their own thoughts with their repressed remonstrances. The further development of these people is easily arrested, and even to the end of their lives they may show an unnatural dependence on their immediate friends and environment.

Only if parents understand to draw back at critical moments and wait quietly in the background until—or in case—the child finds his way back to them, can we expect to see good mutual relations establishing themselves again when the critical period is past. We cannot get rid entirely of the clash between the generations, but if we can achieve a right attitude towards its problems, lasting happiness between parents and children will be more easily cultivated.

How To Study Our Children

SIDONIE M. GRUENBERG

WITHIN the last few years child study has rapidly developed from a purely academic pursuit, designed chiefly for the training of teachers, into a body of practical knowledge useful to parents, teachers, nurses, social workers—to all, in fact, who have to do with children. Scientists and educators have made discoveries which form the basis for a new understanding of child nature, and it has become increasingly necessary to devise means for placing this knowledge in the hands of those who are most deeply concerned with the daily care and guidance of children—parents in the home. University courses, public lectures, and authoritative books on topics of child training are increasingly being addressed to those parents who can profit by these means of education. Even where these are available, however, they often fail to give the needed practical help to individual parents, in both urban and rural communities, who are daily called upon to meet the very real problems of child management in the home.

For most persons the great need has seemed to be not the accumulation of a number of more or less reliable facts and rules pertaining to the conduct of children, but rather a changed point of view with respect to the interpretation of values and objectives. It is one thing to be told from the lecture platform that the child's 'lie' may be just a misstatement of fact and,



Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg

under certain circumstances, perfectly normal; it is another thing to overcome our parental anger and apprehension when our child 'lies', and to learn to apply, instead of punishment, constructive measures for attaining truthfulness.

The child study group has proved to be a most effective and practical means of helping parents not only to assimilate the knowledge of child life and child nature which is at hand, but at the same time to test these contributions through the medium of their own and other parents' experience. Mothers—and, increasingly,

fathers too—bring to child study groups a variety of problems. Mothers of young children; mothers of adolescent boys and girls; young mothers surprised and baffled by the first unexpected resistance of a small infant to authority; older mothers unable to adapt their methods of child training (apparently successful with one child) to the varying needs of their several children; grandmothers who find their own tried methods of discipline in conflict with those of their children and ineffectual in dealing with their grandchildren; mothers whose difficulties include the heavy drain of housework and lack time to devote to their children; mothers whose problems must take account of governesses and expensive recreations; all these come to child study groups, seeking help in their immediate problems, pooling their experience for the guidance of others.

The problems which they bring vary from seemingly trivial daily irritations to more serious or potentially serious difficulties. Each is discussed in the study group with due consideration of all the attending circumstances, but with a view also to establishing certain fundamental principles which will help these parents not only in meeting the immediate situation, but in becoming progressively better able to understand—even to forestall—problems in the future.

Many years of work with parents have revealed two significant facts. These are by no means new or startling; but they point the way to making the groups increasingly helpful to parents. The first of these is that whereas no two children are exactly alike, there are many things which are true of practically all children. The other one is that whereas no two parents or two homes are exactly alike, there are many things which hold true of practically all of them. In short, for certain practical purposes, we realize, that certain types of situations are almost universal. From farms, villages and large cities, from tenements and fine homes, we get exactly the same kinds of problems, the same kinds of parental concern. The restless activity of young children is one source of annoyance. Common observation has for ages found this trait to be characteristic of all normal children; yet to-day the young mother has to learn it all over again.

‘What can be expected of a two-year-old boy?’ asks one perplexed parent. ‘My child does many naughty things. He plays with things on the table. He takes off his slippers. He opens the doors and hauls out the contents of cupboards!’

Parents learn in the study group that the impulses which the child manifests through these ‘naughty’ acts are in themselves neither naughty nor undesirable; that on the contrary, they are the very sources of his ability to learn anything at all in life. It is by handling things, that the child becomes acquainted with the materials and objects of the world in which he has to live. Since he will take off his slippers, his interest in taking them off might be used as part of the game through which he will shortly learn to dress and undress himself. His curiosity will lead him to explore the inside of cupboards,

drawers, or any other closed receptacle; a swinging door has a fascination because it is something that works. Can the mother not find other boxes for him to explore, other ways of exercising his curiosity? Are there not other things besides the cupboard door that work so that the child may get from them the satisfaction of making the hard insensate world do his bidding? Through group discussion along these lines, the mother may learn how to help this troublesome two-year-old to grow into a less troublesome and more self-reliant, more skilful, more understanding three-year-old.

The question of obedience comes up frequently in problems like this: ‘I have two boys, aged two and one half, and four years, both normal and healthy. I try not to ask or tell them to do too many different things, but it is most annoying to have them persist in handling things. They also want to argue and are often impudent and rude if they aren’t allowed to do as they want to. I know I am to blame as I have spoken crossly and impatiently to them, but it is hard to be patient when they are so noisy and do so many things I don’t want them to do.’

This problem is typical of those that arise in large part from our changing ideals and conditions of life. To-day, we have an idea that the individual has to be trained to exercise his individuality and initiative, since he is to live as a free personality among other free men and women. And for parents there is constant conflict and uncertainty. If the child is to be free, he must learn to use freedom; and the restraints and coercions of the older discipline seem incompatible with freedom. Here the group serves to interpret to parents changed attitudes and ideals which must affect parental practices.

Again, the question of punishment comes up. ‘My child is five years old. I can scold and threaten with everything, but he won’t pay any attention to me until I get a switch to whip him with, then he will mind for a minute, but soon forgets it. A whipping doesn’t do him any good, so that kind of punishment doesn’t work.’

The parent needs to learn the place of rewards and punishment in the process of spiritual development. There has been a reaction against corporal punishment, in keeping not alone with broadening sympathies and kind-

ness, but also with a growing realization of the futility—or worse—of the more brutal forms of control. A mother in the study group not only learns kinder ways, but also learns that the results which the older methods brought included the serious but overlooked by-products of hatred and fear and continuing brutality; that in general, punishment teaches children to avoid getting caught much more than to avoid disapproved conduct.

Thus it is seen that children everywhere seem to have 'perverse' desires that make parents feel angry, annoyed, baffled, chagrined, disconcerted, and so on down the alphabet to perplexed and worried and zero. Children will open cupboards or refrigerators, they will steal sugar or pennies, they will touch precious pictures and hangings, they will ask embarrassing questions, they will be untidy, they will disobey orders and disregard prohibitions. Tom will cross the street and Jane will wander far from her own garden regardless of warnings and commands. There seems to be an infinite variety of things with which children can tax their parents' patience and ingenuity. Two-year-old Doris refuses to eat unless someone is sitting with her coaxing and cajoling. Jane, aged four, appropriates her younger sister's toys and never allows anyone to touch her own toys, so that there is a succession of tears and storms in the nursery. Fred is five, but will not play with other children; he is shy with all strangers and is happy only with his mother. Then there is 'Mary Quite Contrary' who opposes every suggestion and command, so that the day's routine is a series of pitched battles between Mary and mother. These are only a few of the infinity of baffling difficulties that come again and again into the discussion in child study groups.

Because the parents who are enrolling for further education as parents, come from all classes of population, with all kinds of educational and cultural backgrounds, with all degrees of ability, and all kinds of emotional bias, it is out of the question to think of standard methods of instruction. Several types of approach are therefore used under various conditions in parents' study groups. Discussion sometimes begins with an initial presentation by the leader of material which he or she

has prepared in advance for the consideration of the group members. This presentation then becomes the basis, sometimes the point of departure, for discussion, comparison and critical analysis by the members of the group in the light of their own practical experiences and problems.

One type of study group approach has served over a long period of years, especially where no professional or especially trained leader has been available. Here the members come prepared to report upon selected reading on the topic or special aspect under consideration. This report serves to start discussion, and the authorities quoted are supplemented, compared and challenged out of the experiences and observations of the members in connection with their own problems or those of others.

In some groups discussion begins with the presentation of a situation, and the members contribute their thinking towards a solution or handling of the case. In still other groups the discussion is centred about observations reported by individuals, supplemented by comparison of notes, reading and drawing upon the experience and knowledge of other members.

In the comparatively short period of forty years the Child Study Association of America has seen the study group spread until now it has been adopted by many different types of organizations to meet many different needs. During the last decade, with its newly awakened interest both in psychology and in childhood, the spread of the child study group idea has been particularly rapid. Now recognized as perhaps the most effective method of parent education, similar groups are being introduced by parent-teacher associations, mothers' clubs, religious and social welfare organizations, and state universities and departments of education.

In size, study groups range as a rule from fifteen to thirty-five. The number of meetings depends upon local conditions and the needs of the members; the preferable plan is to meet every week throughout the season. In the matter of leadership a variety of arrangements are also being simultaneously operated. Some groups have trained leaders, while others depend upon their own members to organize, plan programmes, find material, etc., and call in experts occasionally for further elucidation.

Some groups are able to secure the services of a professionally trained leader.

So rapid has been the increase of study groups however, that the problem of available leadership has come to be a serious one, constituting a limiting factor in the expansion of the work. In various ways, efforts are being made to train and equip both lay and professional leaders to keep pace with this increased demand. Not only are universities and teacher-training institutions including parent education leadership in their curricula, but nursery schools and study groups are offering their facilities for purposes of training and observation. The same principle of continuity of effort, or 'training on the job' which applies to parents, is extended also to leaders, who are offered opportunities in seminars and institutes to discuss new methods, and to confer upon problems which may arise in study groups under their leadership.

Materials and literature for use in study group work are being made available in increasing quantity, and have been tested by the criteria of parents' own needs and uses. Literature

ranges from the most technical to the almost 'popular'. There is need for careful selection and discriminating use of the vast output of popular or semi-popular material, not only as to its authenticity but with reference also to its suitability to the particular needs of study group work.

It is the function of the study group and its leader to help parents to see the child as a whole organism in continuous process of change. Through discussion parents may come to realize that it is impossible to check the child from day to day in terms of completed character, or acquired virtues, since the child is daily in the course of becoming and acquiring. They learn to conceive of personality as a continuous growth, and a gradual and life-long achievement.

To-day many parents, aware of the need for a more systematic adjustment to their most important task in life, accept the basic principles implied in a programme of parent education. In increasing numbers they are working in study group toward a more effective parenthood.

Ten Commandments for Parents

PAUL M. PITMAN

- I. Thou shalt love thy child with all thy heart, with all thy soul, with all thy strength, but wisely, with all thy mind.
- II. Thou shalt think of thy child, not as something belonging to thee, but as a person.
- III. Thou shalt regard his respect and love, not as something to be demanded, but something worth earning.
- IV. Every time thou art out of patience with thy child's immaturity and blundering, thou shalt call to mind some of the childish adventures and mistakes which attended thine own coming of age.
- V. Remember that it is thy child's privilege to make a hero out of thee, and take thou thought to be a proper one.
- VI. Remember also that thy example is more eloquent than thy fault-finding and moralizing.
- VII. Thou shalt strive to be a sign-post on the highway of life rather than a rut out of which the wheel cannot turn.
- VIII. Thou shalt teach thy child to stand on his own feet and fight his own battles.
- IX. Thou shalt help thy child to see beauty, to practise kindness, to love truth, and to live in friendship.
- X. Thou shalt make of the place wherein thou dwellest a real home—a haven of happiness for thyself, for thy children, for thy friends, and for thy children's friends.

Dedicated to all who accept parenthood as a welcome responsibility and a high privilege.

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Projects in Greek Life

MARY C. DAVIS



Preparing for the Play, Francis Parker School, Chicago

THE study of Greek life in the fourth grade (nine-year-olds) at the Francis Parker School, Chicago, is a tradition—just as Eskimo and Indian life are traditional in the first grade, life of early herdsmen in the second, and life in early Chicago in the third grade.

At the beginning of the fourth year nothing is said about Greek life, but the other regular classes are started. After a time some of the children ask for Greek stories, and we begin reading a few of the simplest myths to them. They dramatize these stories almost at once, and ask for more. Some bring Greek chitons from home, which older brothers and sisters have made, others design and make costumes at home; but most of the children ask to make them at school.

Books containing Greek myths, stories and history are left on the tables, and soon the children are asking to retell aloud and act the stories. When I think they are ready, we begin

reading together *Men of old Greece* and a little later *Four old Greeks*, both by Jennie Hall. In the meantime, the children are finding more Greek books and stories at home, in the school-room, in the school and public libraries, and in bookshops. By the time we are well into the book, *Men of Old Greece*, almost every child has asked to dramatize some of the stories. Many children stay after school to talk over the scenes and the parts (we never learn lines) and to select players. We often find them at school very early in the morning, trying to get everything ready to give a play before school begins. We listen to each play, and those that are specially good (and they are many) are given before the whole group.

The children select the plays and players; only those children who can become really 'Greek' are selected. They know from our talks and from the plays that no one can act a part in one of them really well until he can become Greek. We help them as far as we can

to catch the inspiration of Greece ; for example, by giving each an opportunity to say what he thinks might be said by a certain Greek when leaving his mother country to found colonies ; or what might be said by another on seeing for the first time a certain statue by Pheidias. After studying the Greek Theatre and some of the plays, the children are given opportunity to take part in the project either as spectators of one type or another, or as the playwright himself.



We are all Greeks.

There are always a few children who neither ask to give nor to take part in plays. To help them, we take such a topic as Pheidias's workshop, finding out as much as we can about Pheidias, his friends, pupils, shop, etc. Then I say: 'Let's turn this room into Pheidias's workshop. As soon as you feel that you are anybody or anything in that shop you may come and take your place. You may want to be a pupil, a visitor, a sculptor, a lump of clay, a block of marble, a finished or half-finished statue or part of a frieze.' (We select pupils for Pericles and Pheidias before we start.) Seldom have I seen such spontaneous acting from every child, such lovely pantomime, such graceful pose, or heard such beautiful sentences as that play has called forth. Among other plays in which each child may take any part he wants, are : The market place in Athens, a scene in Cheiron's cave, Greeks watching the Olympic games, a group of Athenians at the theatre, a group making pottery, Greek women sewing and talking, Greek men discussing at dinner. Soon every child is begging to give plays, and even the timid ones are making them. Only through spontaneous acting, playing, becoming Greek, I think, have the children been able to give us their best creative work in writing, art and all handicrafts.

In November we begin reading Palmer's translation of the *Odyssey*, and from then the spell of early Greece seems to be upon us all. I find myself reading all the Greek books I've read before and searching out new ones—

poetry, drama, history. In vacations I go to the Metropolitan, the British Museum, the Louvre, and at this moment I find myself on the way to Athens ! For, after all, teaching is studying, working, playing, planning, with the children. On Monday mornings we have long

Francis Parker School, Chicago

conversations covering what we've seen, done, read or thought during the week-end. Some have gone to the Art Museum, others have found Greek books, statues and designs ; many have illustrated stories and plays ; others have made plans for plays, and a few tell me some of the thoughts that have been going through their heads. After the conversation period I ask them to write *any* beautiful or interesting thoughts they have and these are usually about Greek subjects.

By Christmas, the special teachers are asking me what has happened, for all the children have become Greek. Their drawings, paintings, clay, sewing and wood work are of Greek subjects. No matter how early I come to school, the boards are covered with original poems, stories and pictures.

In the afternoons I often take small groups to the Art Museum, and from the top of the bus we see Greek pillars, many Greek designs on buildings and bridges, and friezes. At the Museum the children are thrilled at seeing familiar statues, and familiar figures on vase, frieze and fresco. A page from the *Iliad*, hundreds of years old, never fails to stir them all.

I read many passages to the children which I feel sure they cannot understand but which stir me so deeply with their beauty that I must read them. I remember, once, reading five or six parts from some of my favourite translators of the *Iliad*. I said nothing more about the lines. Three weeks later two children came to me and said: 'We have a surprise for you'. They went into the workroom and soon came out in costume, and gave three of the most beautiful plays I have ever seen: Helen on the walls of Troy; the parting of Hector and Andromache; and Priam's visit to Achilles. They were *all* like beautiful pictures, and they moved us all deeply, teachers, children and visitors, including members of the faculties of college and university. The children's voices were sunk almost to a whisper, as they always are when some really beautiful and fine story is being given. Since that experience, I have read to them whatever I like very much, with similar results.

After such plays, a history lesson, an interesting conversation, a visit to the Museum, or after I have read some beautiful lines, we have a quiet period and some leisure. Then the children feel free to write, draw, paint or get together in small groups and do whatever they feel they want to do. Sometimes beautiful poems are written, the words are set to music, Greek dances are made, journeys are traced on maps, games are given in the room and out of doors. After the children once catch the real Greek spirit, it manifests itself in as many ways as there are different personalities in the group. But to me the secret of getting this spirit is through dramatization.

Teachers often ask: 'But what of the other subjects while Greek life is being studied?' I find that the children read, read, read—many of them, too much. They work together in groups better. Their spelling ability develops greatly as their vocabularies grow. We correlate geography with the history and we find much to do. We also take time for other kinds of geography. In arithmetic, which is entirely separate, we find time to do as much and more than most fourth grades.

THE HOST OF THE MYRMIDONS

ACHILLES: In battle array
We start this fine day.

SOLDIERS: We're the host of the Myrmidons.

ACHILLES: Then men to the fight
And use all your might.

SOLDIERS: We're the host of the Myrmidons.

ACHILLES: Our quick breathing horses
Are in the braves' courses—

SOLDIERS: We're the host of the Myrmidons.

ACHILLES:—With a slish and a slash
And you hear the blades clash!

SOLDIERS: We're the host of the Myrmidons.

ACHILLES: For fair Helen's sake
We fight and none quake.

SOLDIERS: We're the host of the Myrmidons.

ACHILLES: May the host of the Myrmidons never
sever!

SOLDIERS: We're the host of the Myrmidons,
forever!

ACHILLES: Then, men, on to the fight!

John Holabird

A PAGE FROM THE *Iliad*

(Written by a child just eight years old, before she knew the story of the *Iliad*)

Oh *Iliad* so torn,
You must have served many a reader.
What did you tell them?
A history, or the story of a man?
Did you tell of battles,
Of a beautiful country with flowers and streams and
summer always?
I wonder how old you are.
You look so bewildered and brown.
Were there slaves in your time?
Oh *Iliad*, how much can you tell me?
Iliad so tattered!

Mary Helen Brainerd

Progressive Education in a Large City System

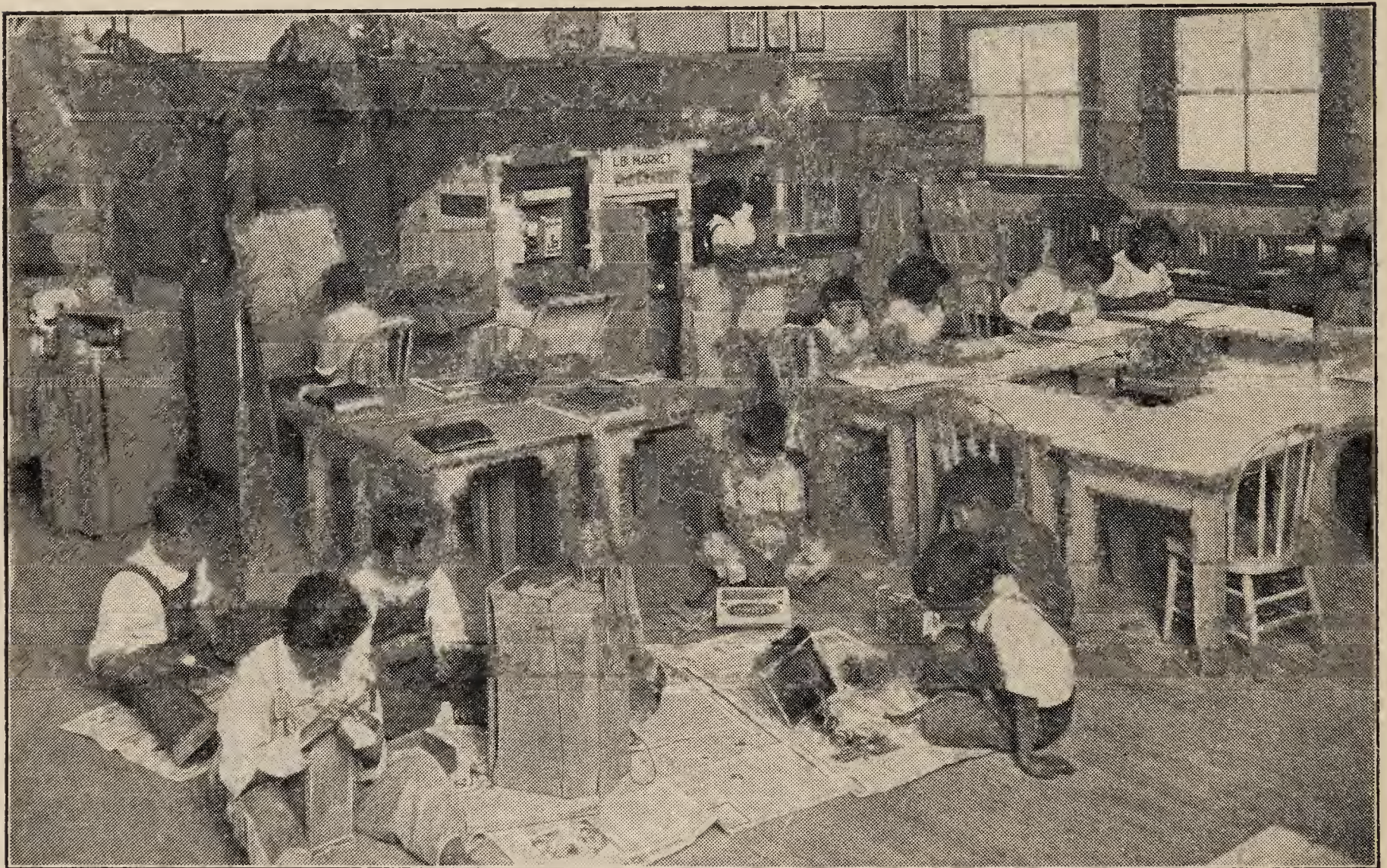
ROBERT H. LANE

THREE years ago a group of Los Angeles principals, checking over a score-card on teacher visitation with their district superintendent, felt that their teachers would stand inspection very creditably on all points except one. This question read: 'Does the situation provide for life and growth?' In other words: 'Does the teaching situation appear to be free, informal and childlike, or is it formal and dominated by the teacher?' The majority of the group felt that too many of the classrooms were of the formal type and that a concerted effort should be made to vitalize the work of the teachers.

Someone suggested that we attempt to locate any 'situations' in the schools which really did provide for life and growth. We found two. Most of the kindergartens afforded a decided

contrast to the more formal academic classrooms. The kindergarten children had more free floor space, they were provided with a variety of pleasant and profitable occupations affording freedom of choice, and the discipline was very informal—in fact 'discipline' in the strict sense of the word was entirely lacking. Instead of being handled as a unit, the kindergarten children were divided into groups, usually self-chosen on the basis of interest, and in these groups the members learned the basic lessons of initiative, self-control and successful group adjustment.

The other spot in the school organization where we found abundant (and sometimes superabundant) life and growth was on the playground. In the formal classroom pupils were doing their daily tasks because they had to; on the playground they were playing because



Six-year-old Mexican children who entered school knowing no English, Soto Street School, Los Angeles



Circus Animals and Tent, Eastman Street School, Los Angeles

they wanted to. As a result, the pent-up energy of the children was released on reaching the playground and life took on a more natural and more childlike aspect. On the playground children divided into groups according to their interests, took turns in directing the groups, criticized each other and themselves for faulty ways of play, learned to adjust social problems of the playground, showed initiative in planning new games or new arrangements of old games, and, in short, set up a rich and varied community life which brought the whole child into action.

The problem now was to apply to the entire academic field from first to sixth grades (ages 6-12) the informal 'activity' programme which characterized the kindergarten and playground. A good start had been made in primary grades through the energy and foresight of an unusually efficient primary supervisor and through the whole-hearted co-operation of the Division of Course of Study controlling the grades from third to sixth, inclusive. The principals' group and their teachers undertook

the study of such books as Cobb's *New Leaven*, Rugg's *Child-Centered School*, and *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School*, by the Lincoln School (Columbia University) Staff.

Now, it is only fair to admit, that at this point we committed our first capital error, an error so serious, in fact, that it nearly wrecked the success of the campaign. The district superintendent, in his enthusiasm, probably put a great deal of pressure upon his principals to start work on the activity plan, and this pressure was brought to bear upon the teachers by the principals, and 'activities' sprang up over night in most of the classrooms. As a result, what really happened was an outbreak of projects—playhouses in the primary rooms, California missions in soap in the middle grades and cardboard castles in the upper grades. These were rushed to completion and displayed to an admiring public and left to accumulate dust while the regular formal routine work went on as before. In other words, what the teacher

fondly believed to be activities were really 'stunts' which had no vital connection with the experiences of the children, but were merely impositions from without upon the pupils and the teachers alike.

We rested from our labours and took stock of the situation. We began to realize the bitter truth of a statement by Mrs. Ensor to the effect that 'a progressive school is often very narrowly understood as a school with an activity programme. The real progressive school is one in which the principal and staff are in tune with the spirit of the times.' We had discovered that an activity programme to be real must be the outcome of a slow and steady growth from the philosophy of education held by the individual teacher and not propaganda devised by a school executive. We began again by inviting principals to study their schools with a view to discovering those teachers who had a tenable and progressive philosophy and who made it function in creating an atmosphere consistent with it. As the reports came in we began to realize how few teachers had the progressive point of view. In many large schools principals reported only three or four such teachers. We asked principals to make use of the work of these people, to assist and encourage them, to study their methods and to invite other teachers to visit them. We encouraged principals to visit each other's buildings frequently so that each principal might come in close contact with as many progressive classrooms as possible. The district superintendent issued a series of bulletins which mentioned by name those classrooms where real activities and experiences were taking place, and since it is human nature to wish for recognition, many teachers who were conducting formal classrooms developed into informal teachers. Little by little, through emulation, through judicious praise, through tactful suggestion and through constant dissemination of information, a real and a respectable activity programme began to be evident throughout the district.

A constant effort had been made to check the academic results of the various activities. This has developed in two directions; *first*, academic supervisors have kept in touch constantly with the schools so as to give guidance and suggestion; *second*, a qualified school counsellor has

given standardized tests in several subjects in rooms carrying on activities, so as to provide definite information on the progress of the children. As a result, our courses of study, which are based on the underlying philosophy of progressive education, are constantly modifying the formal instruction once so prevalent, and, in turn, the courses of study are being modified and improved as new materials and new methods are developed by teachers and supervisors.

The two accompanying photographs indicate something of the free spirit of a progressive outlook upon elementary education. Plate II indicates a 'circus activity' in progress in a second grade. Plate I is a view of a classroom devoted to little Mexican children entering school without a knowledge of English. A variety of activities provides many opportunities and needs for conversation. This grade is known locally as a 'little' B one class in distinction from the 'regular' B one class which has no language handicap.

THE OCTOBER ISSUE

CHOOSING A SCHOOL

Dr. C. W. Kimmins

THE UNTRUTHFUL CHILD

Dr. René Laforgue

MORAL JUDGMENT IN CHILDREN

Professor Jean Piaget

THE DECROLY SCHOOL BRUSSELS

Amélie Hamaide

A Spring Project

ELIZABETH INGRAM

AN experiment lasting three weeks was worked on the lines of the Project method in the Infants' Department of Lawn Lane Elementary (State) School, Vauxhall Park, London. The class was standard 1, boys and girls whose average age was 8 years.

Fortunately circumstances were favourable for the success of the experiment. The children were very friendly and responsive, and through the kindness of Mrs. Vickery, the Head Mistress and Miss Pierce, the class teacher, no restriction was placed on the time-table, or on the choice of subjects or subject matter. As it was the end of the school year, most of the schemes had been completed, and any drastic change the experiment was likely to cause would not seriously interfere with the work of the children.

The main principles the teacher had in mind during the preparation of the project were, *first*, to choose a project which would appeal to the interests of the children, and would arouse activity in as many subjects of the curriculum as possible; *second*, to direct the children's thoughts towards a definite activity, with a definite end in view; *third*, to see that, as far as possible, all the activity should be the outcome of the children's own suggestions.

After consideration, the subject finally chosen was 'The signs of spring', and the next problem was to arrange a scheme which would include all or nearly all the subjects of the curriculum. Nature study and drawing would naturally evolve, provided sufficient specimens were procured. The need for a record of the children's illustrations would be satisfied by collecting and classifying the completed work in the form of a book which would also provide for the language subjects, through stories, poetry and description. Number it was thought would develop along the lines of the measuring and cutting of pages and pictures to fit the book. Actually, this was carried out by only two or three children.

Preparation was made for the introduction of the project through the *Story of Persephone*,

and the observation of the signs of spring in the Park close to the school, would prove a suitable and practical application. For those children who would be likely to be devoid of ideas, material was provided consisting of spring pictures, poems and stories cut out of books and magazines of all kinds.

No attempt was made to include Scripture, music, or physical training in the project, though towards the end of the three weeks, two girls suggested ideas about rhythmic dancing which would possibly have materialized later.

The following is an actual record of the working of the project during the first week :

FIRST DAY

Starting Point : The Story of Persephone.

Result :

(1) Before the story was told, the children gave me an opening to work on during the Scripture lesson on the story of the Good Shepherd. One child took out a Bible, evidently a possession of which he was proud. He read the story to the children and immediately there followed a conversation on books that had been made by the children, and were going to be made. In this way the children were already interested in the 'making of a book.'

(2) The story of Persephone was told, and a conversation followed about the book where this story was found. After asking for their ideas of what they would like to do during the next three weeks, 'The book of Spring Pictures' was the first suggestion. Then came other suggestions: 'Copy poetry.' 'Make flowers and trees.' 'Set grass seeds.' 'Write down all we can see about spring.'

(3) One child showed me a picture of spring, and on asking what he was going to do with it, he said: 'Trace it and colour it'. He started, and others followed his example with other pictures.

(4) Some children started to copy poems, and others took some of the material I had provided, which included pictures to colour, stories to read, composition cards, and poetry cards.

The whole morning was spent on this work and the children were very keen and interested.

The afternoon was given over to music and rhythmic work. The children suggested that they should dance certain flower dances they already knew: the Daffodil Dance, the Violet Dance and the Dance of the Flowers.

SECOND DAY

Poetry: It was found that the children did not understand how poetry should be written, therefore a formal lesson was given, copying the poem *Spring is Coming*, so that they could copy the poems for the book properly. There was no lack of interest or effort in this lesson.

Number: Pictures had been coloured which were not the right size and the children did not know how to use their rulers to make them the right size for the book, therefore a lesson on mensuration was given for this purpose.

Nature: The rain had prevented the visit to the Park on the first day, as had been planned, therefore this walk was taken to-day. The signs of spring were observed and records made by some children in composition and drawing.

Handwork: Paper flowers were made for a flower stall as a result of the children's own suggestions, and I hope this will start activity in money calculations.

THIRD DAY

Number: Pearl said that Connie (the child who had thought of making paper flowers) should be installed with three helpers to set up the flower shop. I provided billheads and advertisements of Carter's seeds. They made packets for seeds from these and priced everything. Billy made a book 'to put down the names of those who don't pay.'

Later in the day Connie came running to say: 'We ought to have a garden. My uncle works in a florist's shop and he grows flowers for the shop.' Other children offered ideas for the making of the garden, a box to be filled with mould, plants and seeds to be put in, even artificial flowers to be used. The class teacher found a zinc-lined tray and we sent to a friend in the country for some real plants. At 3.30 p.m. Connie came and asked me if she could have some customers for her shop, as it was now ready. The shopping therefore began.

Nature: Margaret, the child who had said

that we could set some grass seeds, bought a packet and set them in two plant pots.

During the day twigs had been labelled with the names of the trees they had come from, and put into jars to grow. Some were drawn by the children.

Geography: I asked some of the children, during a conversation about bulbs, if they knew which country grew a great many. Dennis said, 'Holland'. Next day David, who was sitting next to Dennis, said: 'We could make a model of Holland with windmills and people standing up, and lots of bulbs growing.'

FOURTH DAY

Number: Cards were provided with exercises in buying bunches of flowers, following up the shop activities. These had pictures of flowers which were coloured, and the sums were worked.

Handwork: One child had tried to make a composite picture of a hen and chickens, with cut-outs, so in the afternoon we all did one with coloured paper.

FIFTH DAY

Poetry: Six children came and asked me to hear them say the poem they had learned from their own poetry book.

Handwork: Joyce said that she could make a chicken-run, and she brought a box and some wire for this purpose. The wire was very strong and difficult to break, but she persevered until she found a way.

During the remaining two weeks the work that had been started was completed, and examples of all branches of the work were included in the book. The subjects included in the project were number, writing, spelling, composition, reading, geography, nature study, story.

Interesting points of self-discipline arose. The children themselves decided to work at reading, writing and number in the mornings, leaving the handwork and drawing for the afternoons. In another instance the shop-keeper had jars for her flowers and some were broken. She evidently realised the danger of broken glass, and she discarded all the jars, arranging the flowers on the desk.

The value of the experiment was in the general attitude of the children, which was one of keen interest and eagerness in their work.

Jungle Beasts—A Project for Eight-Year-Olds

NELL CURTIS

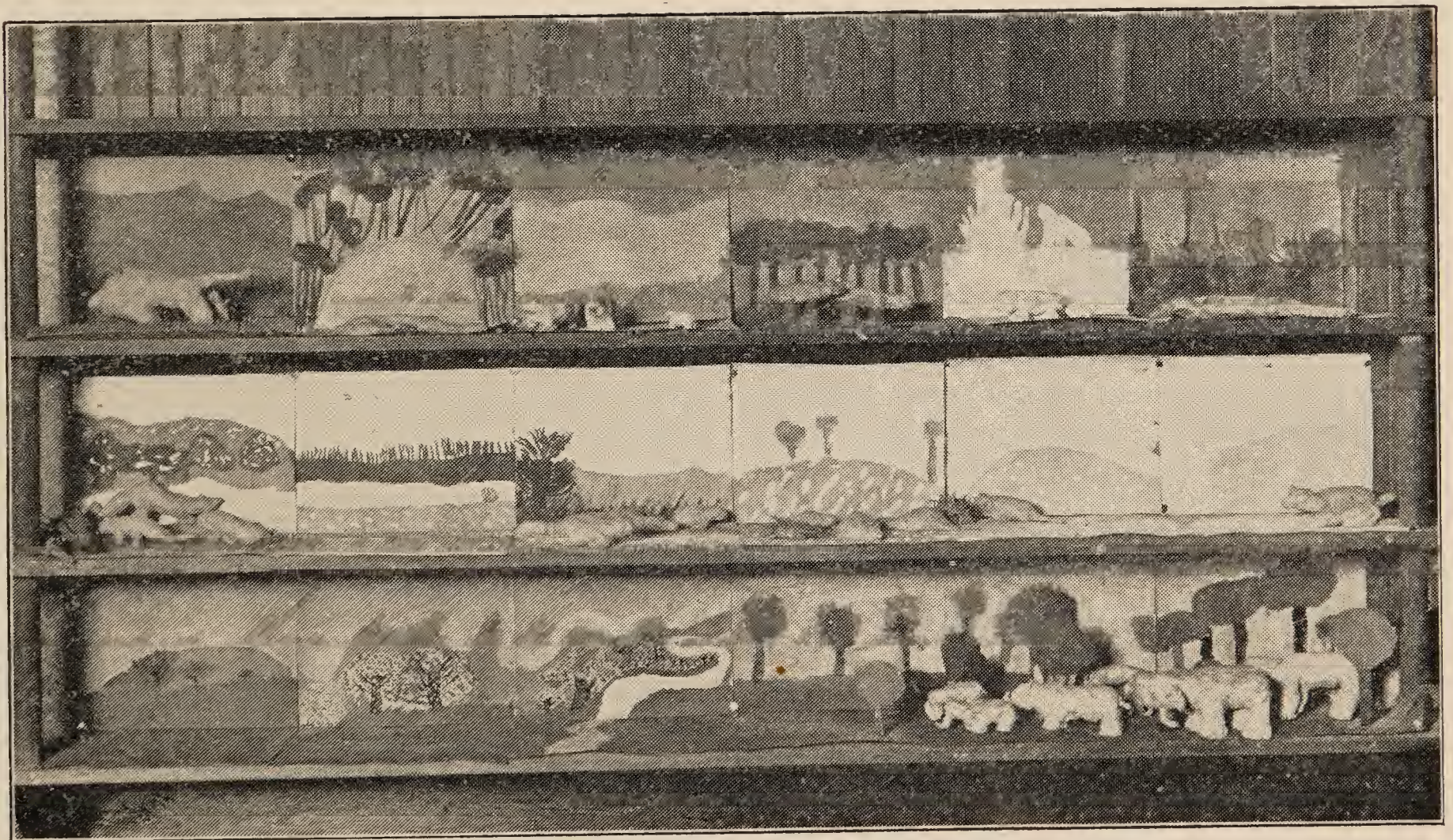
A FEW rather shallow shelves, one above the other, in a schoolroom, make possible and pleasing many miniature scenes which seem to delight all children, especially when they participate in the making.

Our third grade group room has such a series of shelves within range of the children's eyes, which, although they were not built for that purpose, have been the stage for many scenes stimulated sometimes by classroom subjects of interest, and sometimes by more personal interests, since the children often use the shelves for displaying their own treasures.

So one morning when Herbert set on the shelf three or four tiny figures of elephants which he had brought from home, and said: 'I'd like to put these in a little scene', there was no question in the minds of the children of Herbert's

group as to whether we would or would not make such a scene. It was taken for granted, and they included themselves in the making. The first suggestion for work came from one child who said: 'We ought to have more elephants'. For several periods we modelled clay elephants, studying pictures for detail, as we are far removed from any such thing as a zoo. Every child, however, had at some time seen a real elephant.

As we worked, we talked about the habits of elephants, for our modelled figures were to be set in their natural home. The scenes we had in mind were such as all of us had seen in natural history museums, with painted backgrounds and with, perhaps, trees or other detail added when necessary to make the picture more realistic. Our plan also included the procuring



Elephants, Beavers and Jungle Beasts, Ojai Valley School, California

of strips of glass to close in the shelf and protect the finished scene but, upon measuring, we found the glass covering too expensive an addition.

While we were modelling, the children brought many animal books, but, although pictures helped, there was little of printed material of any value which was possible for them to read. I wrote a simple description of the habits of Indian elephants which helped them to picture a scene. Finally we were ready to make our setting. We decided to make two types of background showing the herd of elephants moving out from the jungle toward the grassy plains. For the making of these backgrounds we divided into small groups, some children choosing to paint the jungle, others the grassy plains, while others experimented in making trees that would stand up. Small groups of children sat together, constantly matching their part of the scene with other parts to which theirs must join. Mary, to be sure, insisted at first on painting hers without regard to the others, until Bertram said: 'Don't you understand, Mary? We're not each painting a scene for ourselves. We're painting them to go together.' Mary, after such plain speaking, understood, joined her paper to Bertram's, and began to consider the whole scheme.

Evidently the children had no idea of stopping when this first scene was finished. We were deep in the story of *Shaggy-Coat*, the tale of a beaver. And were there not empty shelves, above? Before the elephant scene was finished several children began modelling beavers. They seemed to know just what they wanted to do with them, but before we actually made the background, the children, as a group, dictated from the information gained while listening to the story of *Shaggy-Coat*, a description specially related to the beavers' manner of living. We used this as a basis for making our next setting.

I supposed this was the probable finish for the time being of the animal study. But new experiences contributed new thinking and new zest; also our descriptions relating to the elephant and the beaver had been put into large

type on paper of a size suitable for a small book. Each child had put his copies into his own decorated covers and so a small animal book was begun. Such a book in itself suggests carrying on.

Then came the school fair in which pets of all kinds played an important part. One morning Helen came in with a story of her pet dog. We were delighted with the story. 'That could go in our animal book,' some one said. Every child had a pet of some sort, and so pet stories became the popular subject of writing for many days. In fact, pet stories continued to come in from home or to be the chosen subject for individual writing in school long after class participation in animal study had ceased.

Meanwhile another experience contributed to the continuation of scene-making and to further study of animal life. The moving picture, 'Simba', came to Ojai. We do not often see the 'movies' in our village, but 'Simba' could not be missed. The third grade children returned with new zest for modelling, but this time the choice was more individual. Soon our third shelf presented six small scenes, each with its setting appropriate to the animal chosen. Herbert set up his lion in the tall grass; Bertram, his coiled snake and crocodile near a pool in the jungle; a polar bear stood in icy surroundings. Individuals read with interest such books as *At the Zoo*, by Mary Lewis. Advanced readers enjoyed *Polaris* and other books by Ernest H. Baynes; also such books as *Wonders of the Jungle* by Prince Ghash Matka, and *Kotick* by David Starr Jordan. I myself wished heartily for more books, simply written, but giving facts about animal life which would contribute to children's desire to know. One day Louise was making a pile of all the books in our library which she had read, and Louise is an inveterate reader. 'What do you think would be the subject of the book you'd like best, Louise, if you could have your choice?' I asked. 'Oh, I like all kinds of books,' she replied, 'but I think I like best of all to read about animals.' I am quite sure that would be the answer given by many eight- and nine-year-old children.

A Bible Project in a Secondary School

HARRIET B. WALKER

[EDITOR'S NOTE.—*Though the Project method is generally used in the education of younger children, the two short articles following show how it may be used in recapitulation by pupils in ordinary High Schools (Junior Colleges in U.S.A.)*]

ILLUSTRATION is no novel feature in religious instruction. The dark and gloomy pictures in the Doré Bible had doubtless a certain appeal to children even though they unconsciously connected them with those awe-inspiring words—omnipresence, omnipotence, omniscience. That Bible, placed on the marble-top table of the old-time period, was handled with a fearsome delight and an oppressive reverence and doubtless bred a deep sense of the supernatural and the mystic in childish minds.

How different the charm of a booklet issued ten or fifteen years ago by a printing press in Richmond, Virginia, entitled *The Little Jetts*! It is an enticing affair, telling in the simplest possible manner by lines, straight and curved, and with a few explanatory words, the thrilling narratives of the Old Testament. The drawings give to the stories life, light and a delightfully restrained but very successful spiritual atmosphere, and they lose nothing of their interest by the explanation of their origin. They were made by Mr. Wade Cothman Smith to entertain and instruct his children on Sunday afternoons, and one can imagine that Sunday could not come too soon and that Bible lore, acquired in such a fashion, was profoundly cherished and as enduring as life itself.

Another aspect of the use of illustration in religious education is that presented in *The Graphic Bible, From Genesis to Revelation, in Animated Maps and Charts*, by Lewis Browne. This is designed for older children and its language is as effective as its drawings.

Not by accident comes the suggestion both in this volume and in *The Little Jetts*, that the love of Bible study has its true source in a little child's own home from the teaching of his own father and mother. *The Graphic*

Bible is used as an additional text in the first year's religious instruction at Mount Vernon Seminary, with special emphasis on the literary and historical value of 'The Book of Books'.

Nurtured on such a text, it is with comparative ease that girls in their early teens deal with such abstract topics as that assigned for development at mid-years of 1929-30.

Instructions were given as follows:

PROJECT

The Rise of Monotheism among the Hebrew People

Show how God has presented himself to the Hebrew people from the call of Abraham to the judgeship of Joshua.

Suggestion:

This may be done by graphic map, chart, outline, or in any other way that suggests itself.

Credit:

Will be given for—

(1) The comprehensiveness of the material (by which is meant the most complete record of the ways and means by which God has presented himself to the people).

(2) Clearness.

(3) Effectiveness.

The selected chart loses much of its beauty in reproduction. It measured 29 inches by 18 inches; the inscriptions were easily read, and as the original was done in colours, there was abundant opportunity for individual æsthetic treatment.

The Chief Wagon
man was very kind & helpful
in showing us the place.



that all the peoples of the earth will know
I am the Lord."

Chart by Elaine Chanute, Fourth Form, Mount Vernon Seminary, Washington

Projects in World Literature

MARION L. BALLOW

AT Mount Vernon Seminary, in the orientation course—a Survey of Civilization—in world literature, in psychology, in the sciences, in economics, the project has been developed as a reinterpretation of the work done in the weeks preceding, viewing it from an entirely different angle, and adding to it the result of additional research and reflection.

Both mid-year and final projects for the first year of world literature grew out of more or less informal interests. As the first half of the first year centred about Athenian civilization, the projects developed quite naturally along lines of pictorial map making, models for the Greek stage and Euripidean characters, anthologies of Greek verse, and one-act plays. As group work included excursions into Chinese and Egyptian life and literature, so project makers drew freely upon these sources for their individual expression. The second semester concerned itself with that much misunderstood period:

the Middle Ages and early Renaissance. The projects included such attempts as, a study of various great Italian families, and an effort to follow Dante in his exile, and in his great adventures through the *Purgatorio* and *Paradiso*. All these wanderings were subject to ingenious device upon the part of the individual student.

A certain rhythm in Romanticism as it made itself felt in the nineteenth century in England, Germany, and France, was the general subject of mid-year projects for the second year. They took the form of essays embodying certain phases of the romantic impulse and certain characteristics of style evident in the essay of the period. The second semester concerned itself further with the nineteenth century, and the projects covered individual investigation in Scandinavian countries and in Italy.

In all projects there was marked co-operation with the art department and with that course known as Survey of Civilization.



Chart made by Katherine Gibson, Mount Vernon Seminary, Washington

A Wool Activity

As Carried Out by Nine- and Ten-Year-Old Children

NAOMI CHAMBERS

A LARGE class-room; books; maps; letters; wool in various stages of primitive manufacture; a microscope; saws; hammers; wood; a work bench; wool-cards; spindles; looms in the making; a table with musical instruments—glasses, marimbas, coconut banjos, psalteries, tin flutes, ocarinos, harmonicas, and bottles; a miniature sheep ranch on a long table in a corner; on the wall a large ranch scene. Small tables and chairs in informal groups where children are gathered. Low-toned conversation; a happy laugh; questions; an eager answer, soft whistle; an angry voice raised in protest; humming; children reading; writing; talking together, sawing, painting; moving about; and the teacher, inconspicuous, yet with a guiding hand at the wheel. These, blended, make the classroom where the children are living, working, learning, growing together.

They are studying wool—how to make a blanket from raw wool. They bought, washed, oiled, carded, spun and wove a blanket—and this is the way it began. One child in the group had visited her father's sheep ranch in the summer. She told us about it. It was time to decide on a study for the year's work.

Discussion

'We could take the study of wool for our work. I should think we could find out a lot



Weaving the blanket on a loom of one's own making, Grant School, Pasadena

Arts for Elementary Schools.

The group decided to study wool.

DEVELOPING THE ACTIVITY

A cleared space in the centre of the room with chairs in a circle in which children and teacher are seated. A few minutes of visiting, getting comfortably settled, gradual quieting down, then the first question: 'Well, what shall we do first?'

Discussion

'I think we should try and make something out of wool.'

'We ought to find out how people make woollen clothes. Maybe we could make some.'

'In the colonial period people made woollen

about it and there would be lots of things we could make.'

'And L.'s father has a sheep ranch in South Dakota. He could write to us about it.'

'Why couldn't we study the world war?'

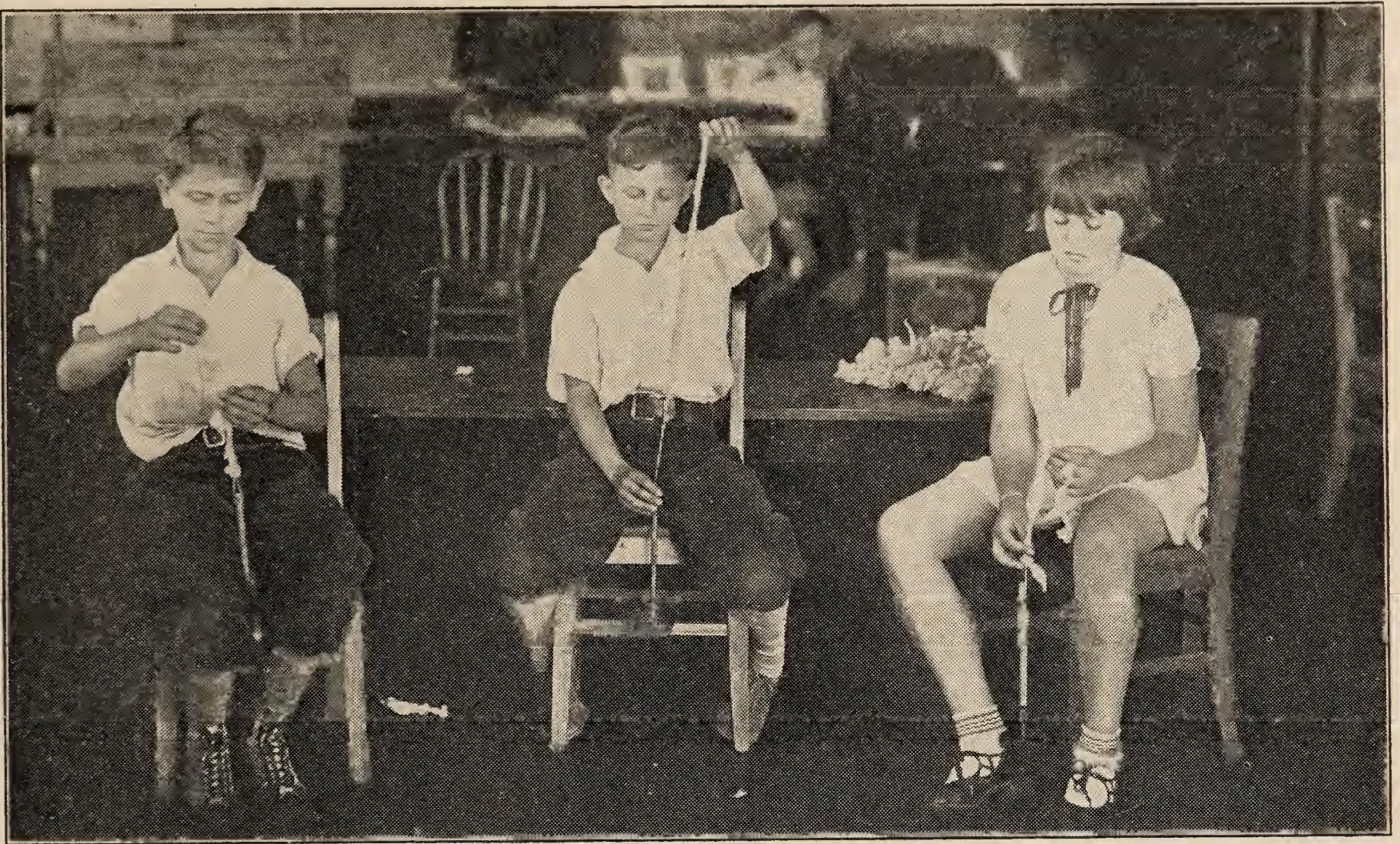
'I don't think that would be so good. There wouldn't be so much to do.'

'It would be fun to study boats.'

'Girls aren't interested in boats. We ought to take something we all want.'

'Let's talk it over for a few days and then vote on the different things we could study.'

The teacher, guiding towards the wool study, brought to the group her copy of Bonser and Mossman's *Industrial*



Tying on a sliver and spinning on hand-made spindles, Grant School, Pasadena

clothes by hand. I know because I read a story about the Colonial Twins.'

'We could find out how they made their blankets by hand. Maybe we could make some.'

'Let's try to buy some wool right from the sheep and try to make something.'

The question that naturally followed was: 'Where can we buy some wool?'

The teacher heard of a felt factory that would sell some unwashed wool, and the next questions from the children were: 'How do you write that kind of letter?' and 'Who will write it?'

Because of this real need the first lesson taught that year was given in letter writing. After a short discussion on the content of the letter the children decided that each one should write a letter and read it to the group. The group then voted on the letter which, by virtue of correctness of style, general neatness, and satisfactory handling of subject matter, could represent the class.

TEACHER GUIDANCE

Because the children suggested no further procedure the teacher audibly wondered 'What the first step will be after the wool arrives'. The children immediately said: 'Of course we'll have to clean it'. The teacher's next question: 'Do you know how wool should be washed?' left them less confident, and very soon came, 'We'd better find out about it'. Immediately several children asked permission to go to the Public Library and see what books on wool they could find. Eventually a trip for the entire class was arranged.

GROWTH OF CURRICULUM CONTENT

The wool arrived. It was handled, weighed, discussed. A discussion period became necessary. Reports and notes from research reading were brought to the circle. With great excitement the first step—washing—in the making of their blankets began.

Through their study of wool the group began to learn something about sheep and the life of a

shepherd, and such questions as 'Where do we raise sheep in this country?' and 'Why do we need to send away for some of our wool?' began to be asked. One child wanted to know how many sheep there were in the United States, but could find no authority later than 1925. The teacher suggested that the Bureau of Animal Husbandry at Washington might answer this question. He wrote at once, and in a short time received several pamphlets on sheep raising and a list of additional places to which he might write. This stimulated the entire group to write for and receive direct information.

Now the children became conscious of many words they needed to spell correctly in their letters; so each child placed on the board daily the words he wished to learn and which he felt his group would also need. Long division entered when the group wished to make their wool cards. The teacher explained the process and supplemented with similar problems from a textbook. Thus through solving activity problems they recognised the need of mechanical drill in arithmetic.

Geographical information came with the desire to consult maps for exact location of cities engaged in manufacturing woollen goods; for locating sheep-raising states, and commercial routes, both national and international, in wool trade. They discovered geographical and climatic reasons for sheep-raising and wool manufacturing centres in the United States. History grew as their research work necessitated a study of the industrial development of the country, factory conditions and labour laws, even touching finally on the causes of the industrial revolution.

WORLD-MINDEDNESS

Through direct correspondence, interest and appreciation of other countries became vivid. The children eagerly learned the location of foreign countries and cities on the map, and compared them in size with their own country; investigated the different governments; discussed climate and soil as favourable or unfavourable to sheep-raising and wool manufacturing; and invariably questions arose for further research, such as: 'What else do they do there besides raise sheep?'

SIDE ISSUES

Towards the end of the year came: 'Let's buy a sheep!' 'Yes!' 'We can build a sheep pen to keep it in.' 'We can dip it and shear it.' So as a preliminary step there grew on a long table a miniature dipping-pen, shearing-shed, sheep pen, and all phases of a model sheep ranch. Then a visit to a stock show! They picked out different breeds of sheep met in their reading and in pictures. They found the kind of sheep they wished to buy, and the price.

GROWTH IN RESPONSIBILITY AND SELF-CONTROL

The group held each child responsible for a finished blanket made by his own hands before the school year was over. Those who finished before the others made vegetable dyes and dyed their blankets. They made cards, spindles and looms by hand, following directions given in Bonser and other books on textile weaving.

They learned that freedom in a group carries with it a certain amount of self-restraint and co-operation. B——, a self-conscious, egotistical, nervous child, continually wasted his own time and disturbed others; in a discussion period this helped him: 'B——, you waste time and annoy us.'

'We do not like it and you are dumb.'

'You act smarty and silly.'

Finally from a little girl: 'I think we have growled at B—— long enough. I'm sure he will do better. Now let's watch for nice things he does.'

And this for a child criticizing another's report, but himself lacking in industry: 'If you'd work a little more yourself and bring in some reports you'd have a better right to criticize someone else'. A flare of anger, then: 'Gee, guess you're right. I'll get busy.'

The teacher needs no previous information about wool—only a willingness to study and learn about it as a member of the group. Ability to assist children in solving their own problems, evaluating their work and checking their time so that they do not work too long on one phase of the activity, comes to her, a gradual growth.

The activity indirectly led to spontaneous creation of miscellaneous poems, stories, songs and drawings. The following contributions came from eight-year-old and ten-year-old children respectively:—

WOOL FOR KINGS

We shear the sheep,
We dip the sheep
We do so many things.
We wash our wool
We oil our wool
Until it's fit for kings.

We make our cards
We card our wool
And then we think it's done—
But no it's not, oh no, no, no,
For it has not been spun.

We spin our wool
We weave our wool
And then for a suit of clothes—
You buy the suit
You wear the suit
On Sunday with a rose.

THE SHEPHERD BOY'S SONG

All the world is mine,
All the trees and flowers,
All the world is mine,
All the pools and bowers—
As I lead my sheep
Up pathways steep
I sing and sing a song of joy.
All the world is mine—is mine
And I am only a rude shepherd boy.
Mine the bees
Mine the flowers
Mine the birds in all the trees.
Oh, I am King as I sit in my bowers
With my four-footed subjects—Oh, what joy
For me—a poor, humble shepherd boy.

Violet Dunlap

So, for us, thinking, planning, struggling
together in a social group for the completion of
a common task of our own choosing is, for
pupils and teacher, education.

Cover Competition

The present design on the cover of the *New Era* is the original work of one of Professor Cizek's art pupils in Vienna. The intention is to employ this same design for six months, and then to employ different designs, also the original work of children, making use probably of four designs during a year. The Editor would be very glad, therefore, if parents and teachers would submit suitable original designs in colour, from *children up to and including the age of sixteen*, accompanied by the name and address of the child. Designs submitted cannot be returned and will be held to be the property of the *New Era*.

A PRIZE OF ONE GUINEA WILL BE AWARDED FOR EACH DESIGN
CHOSEN

This Competition will close on 1st April 1931

The Editor hopes very much that designs will be submitted from all over the world, so that the original child art of different countries may be represented. Designs should be sent to the Editor, *New Era*, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1, and the envelope marked 'Cover Competition'.

Questions from Parents and Teachers

Parents and teachers are sometimes faced with situations with which they feel they cannot adequately deal. You are invited to send such 'posers' to us, and when necessary we shall seek the advice of men and women whose work is the study of young children and adolescents. We ask that you send 1s. to cover cost of clerical work involved. Questions sent in by the middle of one month will be answered, if possible, by the beginning of the month following, and those of general interest will be published in the "New Era".

Why Will She go on doing Things I have Repeatedly Told her not to do ?

1. For the same reason as her Daddy tries to keep his eye on the ball every Saturday afternoon, and every Saturday afternoon equally signally fails! A command or a prohibition which is given to a human being by some force outside him, for reasons not fully understood, is almost impossible to obey habitually. Any occasional obedience can always be accomplished. But since the action does not spring from anything inside the individual which recognises the necessity for the command and leaps to obey it, the memory of the command is always washed away by more urgent matters, and the child disobeys because for the moment he has forgotten that he was told to do otherwise. It is a failing that he shares with the whole of mankind, and with his parents as much as anyone.

2. This behaviour may also arise deliberately, from real defiance, and if it does so, it is a danger signal. It means that we have given up trying to understand the child, and are merely pitting our will against his. To find oneself in this position means an interior sense of inability in the adult, and that the battle with the child's unconscious is consciously chosen by the adult either as a substitute for one of his own battles or as a sacrifice to a conception of abstract obedience and immutable law from which the adult himself suffered in youth.

Why Does she insist on Playing in a Corner by Herself and not with the Other Children ?

There are many reasons for behaviour of this kind, and it needs careful and very sympathetic investigation.

Often the parent has put the child into clothes, however charming or suitable they may be, differing in some way or another from the clothes of the other children, and the child feels peculiar, and would rather withdraw herself from the society of the others, and pretend she does not want to play, than risk the ostracism which

she feels would come upon her if she tried to mix with them. It is very difficult to exaggerate the sensitiveness of children to their appearance, and the strength of their longing to be exactly like the other children that they see or mix with.

Another very potent reason, especially in children who are much alone, is the strength of their phantasy life, and the satisfaction they derive from the imaginary companions that they have created for themselves. In comparison with these, all real companions fail, and the solitary child, feeling strange and not at home with a group of children already happily in touch with each other, prefers to retire to the imaginary company of those of whom he feels certain rather than risk isolation among a noisy, cheerful group that he does not know.

Dr. MARGARET LOWENFELD
(Hon. Medical Director, The Children's Clinic,
85 Clarendon Road, London, W.II.)

Persistently Interfering with other Children.

An aggressive sadistic child is a difficult case to deal with. The causes are deep-rooted, and originate most frequently in wrong home conditions under which the child has been thwarted. The only practical way of dealing with the child at school is a rather negative one. As in all cases in which disciplinary measure may have to be taken, the child should be warned that if he hurts or interferes with others he will have to play alone outside the group. If he ignores the warning and interferes repeatedly, he should be gently and kindly taken away, given plenty of play materials and left alone in a room or garden. There should be no scolding or reproaches on the part of the teacher but every act of aggression should always be treated in exactly the same way. Naturally, special attention should be given to see that the child has enough interesting occupations to keep him happy and busy during his waking hours.

H. BEATRIX TUDOR-HART
(Directrice, The Children's Group Nursery School,
London, N.W.3.)

International Notes

Belgium

The inaugural meeting of the Belgian Section of the N.E.F. was held in Brussels on 15th June 1930, and attracted a very large number of people, among whom were representative educators from Chile, France, Germany, Holland, Poland and Portugal. M. Vauthier, Minister of Sciences and Arts, is Honorary President. Other officials are: Professor de Moor; M. Martens (Director), Secretary to M. Vauthier; M. Tits, Director of Education for Brussels; Dr. O. Decroly (President); Mlle A. Hamaïde (Secretary), and MM. N. Smelten, F. Dubois and L. Porinot (members of the Executive Committee). One of the aims of the section is to work in co-operation with all other educational centres that have the same ideals of adapting education to the real needs of children. Offices are being obtained in the Musée Scolaire National, Palais du Cinquantenaire.



The New Education Fellowship has existed as an international organization since 1915, and has done much to co-ordinate pioneer experiments in education into a world movement. It has organized five International Conferences, the last of which was held in Elsinore, Denmark, in the summer of 1929. Concerning the Fellowship, Sir Michael Sadler, in his introduction to the published report of this Conference, *Towards a New Education*, said: 'The New Education Fellowship is, I think, the most highly vitalized body which exists in the world for the investigation of new methods of teaching and for the recording of experience gained in all lands in the fascinating and urgently needed task of adapting education to new social ideals'. In his opinion, the Elsinore Conference brought to light 'the truest account available anywhere of the various currents of progressive educational thought in the world at this critical time'. It constituted 'an educational weather forecast, made by experienced meteorologists who are scientific in the accuracy of their observation, and purposeful in their labours for the bettering of society through bold and wise experiment in methods of teaching'.

The Fellowship now has Sections in twenty countries, Groups or Representatives in eleven countries, and Bureaux in France, Germany and Switzerland, and is affiliated with the Progressive Education Association in the United States. These Bureaux are increasingly used by both parents and teachers from many countries travelling in or desiring information about educational matters in Europe and America, and by Americans and Europeans desiring information of many different kinds about countries all over the world. During the first half of this year citizens of twenty-one countries called at Headquarters in London for information, advice and help; all kinds of services, many of them involving much time and care in inquiry and research, were given them.

The International Council of the Fellowship there-

fore felt it was justified in asking for more general support, and initiated a (collective) Federating Membership (£5 5s.). There seems to be some misapprehension regarding the meaning of this Federating Membership. It does not overlap or compete with the World Federation of Education Associations or with the Fédération Internationale des Associations d'Instituteurs. The work of the Fellowship is quite separate and distinct. Federating Membership is offered to associations, institutions, training colleges, government education departments etc., and federating members are given the services of the Fellowship's Bureaux, free admission of a delegate to its International Conferences, access to its Library, and three magazines (or three copies in one language) from eighteen issued in connection with the Fellowship.

Since the Fellowship has definitely proved to be of service in this way—not alone at Headquarters but also in each country where it has a Bureau—it is very much hoped that societies and associations within the teaching profession will support it by federating. It can readily be seen that this constant service necessitates extra staff and much time, and it is felt that when the facilities of Headquarters and the Bureaux are so freely made use of and placed at people's disposal, there is ample justification for asking for the support of educational bodies and societies of whatever kind. The associations that have become Federating Members are: The Child Study Association of America; The Western Australian Teachers' Association; the National Council of Education of Canada; the Department of Education of Nova Scotia, Canada; the Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools, England; the National Union of Teachers, England; the Educational Institute of Scotland; the Transvaal Teachers' Association, Johannesburg, South Africa. Schools and Institutions that have become Federating Members are: Frensham Heights School, near Farnham, and Garden School, High Wycombe, England; Château de Bures School, par Villennes, France; International School, Geneva, and Landerziehungsheim, Hof Oberkirch, Switzerland; Park School (Cleveland), Westover School (Middlesbury, Conn.), Groton School (Mass.), and the Montezuma Mountain School for Boys (Los Gatos, Cal.), U.S.A. Many other associations and societies are considering joining the N.E.F. as Federating Members, and it is hoped that other schools and institutions will follow the example set.

Membership of the English Section of the Fellowship is *individual* membership only, and particulars will be supplied by the Hon. Secretary, English Section, N.E.F., 11 Tavistock Square, W.C.1. This membership is quite separate and distinct from the Federating Membership, which is a *collective* membership to *Headquarters*.



A Committee has been formed by leading school authorities in Denmark for the purpose of offering

hospitality to English boys and girls from secondary schools during the summer holidays. The Committee hopes to arrange for a party to spend a couple of weeks in Danish homes—where they would be treated as 'cousins from over the water'—during the summer of 1931. One or two children would be taken in each home. Several hundreds of American, Scandinavian and German boys and girls have already visited Denmark in this way. At present attempts are being made to form a similar Committee in England to co-operate with the Danish Committee, and offer hospitality to Danish youth. Any readers interested in the plan might communicate with Herr O. Friis-Hansen, Torsted, Horsens, Denmark.



In connection with the recent appointment of Mr. W. Hamilton Fyfe (late Headmaster of Christ's Hospital, England) to the Principalship of the Kingston University, Canada, it is interesting to note that during the last ten years no boy left Christ's Hospital without having an assured position to go to. In commenting on this fact, the *Education Outlook* urges that there should be a careers master or mistress on the staff of every secondary school to link up parents and pupils with employers. From the *Kent Education Gazette* we learn that the Städtische Reform-Realgymnasium mit Oberrealschule (Secondary School)—some of the pupils of which have recently visited the Junior Technical School in Chatham, England—possesses a small committee who advise the older boys in their choice of careers.



A Conference Course on Empire Trade and Foreign Relationships will be held from 8th to 20th September at Ashridge, the Bonar Law College at Berkhamstead, Hertfordshire. The fee for the Course, including board and tuition, is £7. Information from the Principal.



The Fifth Congress of Curative Pedagogy (*Heilpädagogik*) will be held in Cologne from 7th to 10th October. The programme covers, *inter alia*, methods of helping and curing the deaf and dumb, mental defectives, those afflicted with different forms of aphasia, abnormal children, children with criminal tendencies, children who lie; and there will be inquiries into the opportunities afforded teachers, doctors and lawyers for taking part in this curative work. Further information may be had from Herr Erwin Lesch, 1 Geschäftsführer der Gesellschaft für Heilpädagogik, Munich 9, Voss-strasse 12/11, Germany.



A report has been presented by the Education Committee of the New Zealand House of Representatives,

concerning its recommendations for the reorganisation of the educational system of New Zealand. The recommendations, which are similar to those of the Hadow Report in England, include the raising of the school leaving age to 15 (with certain exemptions); intermediate courses in separate schools; suitable instruction in practical agriculture in all schools. It is proposed also that there should be a national appointments board having a single register covering the entire teaching profession, and that there should be national inspection and national control of equipment and payment of teachers' salaries. The Committee also recommends that there should be unified control of primary, secondary and technical education.



Dr. John Dewey recently announced plans for an institution, the Abraham Lincoln University, which it is hoped to build in the near future. This university is envisaged by Mr. Roy Curtiss, the President of the foundation, who has been maturing his ideas for the last fifteen years, as 'an international seat of learning, which will promote world understanding through education', and it is proposed that there shall be accommodation for 1,500 students in all, 200 entering each year, selection to be made first of all on the basis of character. Two students will be drawn from each state in America and two from each of the larger foreign countries. The course will cover six years. The faculty, which will probably number twenty-five, will be expected to travel, to inquire into international conditions, and to confer together, before the opening of the university, in order to prepare the curriculum—which shall be 'free of all deliberate indoctrinations of special views and beliefs'. The newly appointed trustees number many prominent American educators and public men, and include Dr. Dewey and Dr. David Starr Jordan, Dr. William B. Millar, Dr. Arnold Bennet Hall, Dr. Mary E. Woolley and Dr. Eugene Randolph Smith.



An educational film, 'The World War and After', has been published by the League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.1, and is designed to assist teachers in carrying out the desires of the Eighth Assembly of the League of Nations (1927). A descriptive leaflet may be obtained from the League of Nations Union. Part I of the film shows the Great War and the League of Nations; Part II, what the League has done to prevent war. The film may be hired, and terms arranged for extended periods. Arrangements may also be made for supply of a projector and necessities, and for the services of an operator. The ordinary cost is, for one day, 4 reels—2½ guineas, plus cost of carriage one way; for one week, 4 reels—7½ guineas, plus cost of carriage one way.



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Book Reviews

**Changing Civilizations in the Modern World :
A Textbook in World Geography with
Historical Backgrounds.** By *Harold Rugg*.
Ginn & Co., Boston.

Until lately we have been accustomed to find most textbooks organized on lines prescribed by the limits of the academic research in which the textbook makers have been engaged. No or little regard was taken of the interests, needs, and capacities of the child, the writers generally knowing little, if anything, about the psychology of childhood; and dominated by an unfailing respect for tradition, they have usually avoided all subjects concerning the vital affairs of current life.

Dr. Rugg's latest textbook (the second volume of the *Rugg Textbooks in Social Studies*) marks a definite and most promising breaking away from this time-honoured but not very satisfactory way of providing schools with their materials of instruction. In this *Textbook in World Geography with Historical Backgrounds* every page bears testimony to the very successful way in which child psychology in general, and the psychology of learning in especial, may be applied when treating the significant contemporary problems of living.

One of the novel characteristics of the book is that it presents a unified course on the social studies instead of treating separately the subjects of history, geography, and civics, its chief aim being to help pupils 'to understand modern life and how it came to be'. Therefore, as the author points out in the Preface, 'whenever history is needed to understand the present, history is presented. If geographic relationships are needed to throw light upon the contemporary problems, those geographic relationships are incorporated. The same thing has been done with economic and social facts and principles.' The titles of the twelve units of which the book consists may give a rough idea of what material has been selected, and how it has been arranged into definite problems: I Introducing the Study of Modern Civilizations. II Europe before the Industrial Revolution. III How England Became Modern Industrial Great Britain. IV France: Both Farmer and Manufacturer, the World's Second Largest Empire. V Germany: A Powerful Industrial Nation and the Centre of European Trade. VI The Agricultural Countries of Europe. VII How the Geography of Europe made that Continent the World's Greatest Industrial and Commercial Region. VIII Europe from 1914 until To-day. IX China: A Changing Agricultural Civilization. X Japan; An Ancient Island which is Becoming a Modern Industrial Nation. XI How the Home of Ancient Civilization Became Modern Latin America. XII Summing up Changing Civilizations in the Modern World. At the end of each of the twenty-six chapters there is a bibliography of books and magazines from which additional information may be had,

not only on the ten countries studied in the present work, but also on a great number of the smaller countries that for several reasons could not here be made an object of careful study. The book is also provided with a statistical appendix and an index.

There is something very dynamic and invigorating about the way in which the many geographical, historical and economic topics are presented. This is largely due to the frequent use of dramatic episodes, which does not only stimulate the interest but also makes it easier to retain facts important to remember. The effect is further strengthened by a wealth of maps, graphs, and pictorial material, far in excess of their present use in textbooks.

A common weakness of current textbooks in geography, history, and civics is their lack of planned repetition. In Dr. Rugg's book this defect has been remedied by a carefully planned recurrence of important concepts, generalizations, and historical and geographical themes, constantly presented in new and varied settings. In this way the inevitable memorizing of numerous important items never becomes a drudgery, and yet is certain to give far more effective result than with the old type of textbook.

Another outstanding feature, and one which to a considerable extent contributes to its power of stimulating the reader's own activity and thinking, is the fact that it has been constructed in close conjunction with a special *Pupil's Workbook*, which book provides a succession of problem-solving activities, dynamic and thought-provoking. The two books are intended to be used simultaneously in order that the most effective results may be obtained. In fact, the *Workbook* is looked upon as the very core of the course. It includes also many optional suggestions for pupil activities, presented as a series of problems.

The book is based upon nine years' thorough investigation, of which a report will be given in a forthcoming monograph, *American Civilization and the Curriculum of Social Studies* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University).

Through this his latest textbook, Dr. Rugg has in a most practical and efficient way contributed towards the realization of the two great aims in which he sums up the new education: *tolerant understanding and creative self-expression*.

The New Education in Austria. By *Robert Dottrens*. *John Day Co., New York.* \$3.

Dr. Dottrens presents sympathetically the social ideals that have inspired political groups, school officials, teachers, parents and welfare workers in their labour for the past ten years. Establishment of the Austrian Republic reinforced pre-existent demands for democratic control of the schools, for equalization of educational opportunities, and for revision of the curricula. In spite of the reduced state

of the country in 1918, the School Reform Department began its work at once and succeeded in launching a programme that has culminated in legislation and general practice to some extent in every department of the educational system from pre-school groups up to and through the university. The most radical reforms have taken place in the elementary schools. Apparently the success of the reform has been due to the vision of the leaders and the efforts of many teachers who devoted themselves to study and experiment in the idealistic spirit of the 'new education'.

If the author has given us a very optimistic view of progressive education in Austria, it is because he saw it with the eyes of one accustomed to educational practices in the Old World, and he looked chiefly at Viennese schools, whereas the provinces have tended to remain conservative in education as in politics.

The subject of this book is of so much interest to educators and students of international affairs that one wishes certain imperfections had been eliminated. A clearer understanding of the present status of the new education in Austria would have emerged if the original writer's statements had been more closely integrated with the translating editor's lengthy notes added two and a half years later. Since the book was designed for English and American readers they would have been saved some confusion of thought, if substitutes had been found for unusual words or those shorn of their customary meanings. In spite of these difficulties, the book is worth while because it presents many facts about Austrian schools and suggests problems of immediate importance to the educators of every modern nation.

Motion Pictures in History Teaching. By Daniel C. Knowlton and J. Warren Tilton. Department of Education, Yale University. The Yale University Press. \$2.00.

This book is a very good example of what a record of psychological research should be. It is a finely conceived and well executed volume, concise yet sufficient, precise yet interesting; and it is worth while getting simply as a model record of a particularly valuable piece of educational work, a pattern and guide to similar essays.

In the experiment itself, all that fertile ingenuity could suggest and patient experienced labour achieve, appears to have been included to secure that unbiased and scientific appraisal of the educational value of the film in history teaching should emerge. The resultant victory for the moving picture, although stated with the utmost caution and reserve, seems to be complete and convincing. It confirms the reviewer's own opinion, based upon first hand observation at special children's cinema shows during the last five years that the film (especially the latest stereoscopic-natural colour-sound variety) can and will become the most potent single piece of educational equipment for quick-fire instruction.

One cannot help envying the American teacher. When may we in England hope to get our universities to support serious educational research, or when will our authorities be really up-to-date in the matter of equipment?

The authors have assumed that their readers have a working acquaintance with the 'jargon' of modern psychological testing, but include a very useful bibliography of reference books for the 'very keen'.

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 97

CHANGING CIVILIZATIONS IN THE MODERN WORLD: A TEXT-BOOK IN WORLD GEOGRAPHY WITH HISTORICAL BACKGROUNDS
THE NEW EDUCATION IN AUSTRIA
MOTION PICTURES IN HISTORY TEACHING

Books Received

THE PLAY WAY OF SPEECH TRAINING. Rodney Bennett, M.A. Evans Bros. Ltd., London, 3s.
SIEPMANN'S SCHOOL CERTIFICATE FRENCH COURSE. First Part. Illustrated by H. M. Brock, R.I. Macmillan & Co., Ltd., London, 2s. 6d.
FUNDAMENTAL ENGLISH. Junior Series. Teacher's Book Four. P. B. Ballard, M.A., D.Litt. University of London Press. Limp Cloth, 2s. 3d.
BROADCAST ENGLISH II. Recommendations to Announcers regarding the Pronunciation of Some English, Place Names. A. Lloyd James. The British Broadcasting Corporation, London, 1s.
NEW AGE GEOGRAPHIES, BOOK II—FAR AWAY. L. D. and E. C. Stamp. Longmans Green & Co., 1s. 8d.
A FIRST CHEMISTRY FOR SCHOOLS. Arthur Brooks. University of London Press, 2s. 9d.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

TO most city dwellers thatched cottages round the proverbial village green is a charming romanticism that belongs to the days of the stage coach and crinoline. Yet while we rush along arterial roadways, the pulse of village life keeps its own quiet beat within earshot of our noisy journeyings.

I have just strolled through an Oxfordshire village off the main London road; crooked, white-washed cottages nestled against each other in the shelter of poplar and willow, and caught the lingering sunlight from across the Chilterns. Here and there a solitary villager sat at his open doorway. The village green, the church, the fields, basked in undisturbed peace as they might have a century ago. To outward appearances the village was much the same as then, but through every other doorway came the voice of London, Birmingham or Madrid—jazz band or song! It gave food for thought. Gone indeed are the days of physical and mental isolation when a ten-mile coach journey was an adventure of a lifetime, when adults could neither read nor write, when electric light, motor cars and the cinema were unknown, when in fact, each village was a world of its own. But it is a mistake to think that the village as an individual community has ceased to be. It is adapting itself to mechanical invention, and by this adaptation it is being linked up to the rest of the world; but it is preserving its traditional apartness, its uniqueness of custom, habit, and speech. Perhaps it will once again become the centre of communal interest and development, and is now but waiting for someone with inspiration to show the way.

Rural Education

The whole question of rural education is becoming

more urgent than it has yet been in England, in the Dominions or indeed in most European countries. Democracy presupposes that the rural shall have the same chance as the urban population. We hope that the village college to be opened at Sawston, near Cambridge, this October, may prove to be the Open Sesame to the solution of the whole problem. For years Mr. Henry Morris, now Director of Education for Cambridgeshire, has been working at the problem of how to bring about a revival of culture in the villages. His scheme is to divide the county of Cambridgeshire into ten areas, each centering around a village college. Sawston is the first of these ten and is to be opened by the Prince of Wales. The college itself will be the centre of all educational activities in its area. It will co-ordinate both the statutory and the voluntary organizations. It will, therefore, contain a new senior school, a wing for adult education classes, a hall that will serve as gymnasium, lecture hall, cinema and theatre, as well as a sports ground and recreation fields. Later a nursery and a junior school will be added. The medical room will be used by the district nurse, by the mothers and babies of the area, and by the school children for the purposes of hygiene classes. There is a library, an agricultural laboratory, a biological laboratory, a domestic science 'cottage' where the children will learn not only cooking and housewifery, but the more intricate problems of home making. Scouts and guides will use the college, and all local elections will be held there. The college is, in short, to become the living centre of *all* activities. The building is simple, artistic and well equipped. A fountain, cloisters and paved courtyard replace the ugly black asphalt playground which is typical of most of our

English elementary school buildings. We wish Mr. Morris's bold experiment every success.

The Need for Fundamental Readjustment

In his book entitled *Education at the Crossroads*, Lord Eustace Percymakes the followingthought-provoking statement :

'Have we ever considered how little invention there has been in the field of education during the last five hundred years or so ? Our curricula have, indeed, changed with the expansion in the field of knowledge. We have differentiated, and are still differentiating, the intermediate or secondary stage of education from the primary school on the one hand and from the university on the other. We have introduced into education the principle of legal compulsion. But, apart, perhaps, from the Boy Scout movement, would it be far from the truth to say that only in our technical colleges would a visitant from the early sixteenth century encounter a type of educational society wholly unfamiliar to him, and only there would he recognize a power capable of exerting a really new influence on the social life of the nation ?'

We agree with Lord Eustace. The schools have not played their part in helping us to readjust to the new conditions and it is time we thought deeply and widely about the fundamentals of education. Since the War, there has been growing unrest and dissatisfaction concerning education. Every paper and periodical reflects the same uneasiness. Different experiments are, of course, being carried out in schools all over England and in all parts of the world, but most of these are isolated individual attempts. Thanks to the pioneers, certain truths have been made clear, but it is time we became more basic, more comprehensive and, above all, more co-ordinated in our efforts to adjust existing educational systems to the great social changes taking place in the world.

A Correction

It is discouraging to feel that the Rt. Hon. H. A. L. Fisher in his address to the City of London Vacation Course in August, may have confused his audience as to the basic aim and achievements of many educational reforms of the day. He is reported in the Press as having said :

'Many of you are doubtless familiar with the pages of the *New Era*, a periodical which exists to promote and to survey the educational novelties of the time. You will realize that the contributors to the *New Era* belong to the School of Liberty as opposed to the School of Discipline. They believe that the purpose of education is to enable the child to develop its own nature along the line of its own interests with as little external repression as possible. They regard corporal punishment as wholly vicious. Some of them dispense with punishments altogether. . . . Some of them go so far as to associate children in the tasks of school government or at best to concede to the children the planning of their own time tables.'

We regret Mr. Fisher's definition of the 'School of Liberty' as being a school opposed to that of 'Discipline'. It is always lamentable when self-discipline is confused with no discipline and licence. The truth is, there is no liberty where there is no law : law is the mother of freedom. We feel that Mr. Fisher's address, as reported in the Press, underrates the deeper issues that are the bases of the modern school of educational thought, of which men such as Dewey, Kilpatrick, Montessori, Burt, Decroly, Sadler, Nunn, Rugg, Piaget, are leaders.

Adjustment to the New Social Order

Just as unconsciously man has been able to adjust himself to this mechanical age, so in the new generation an unconscious urge to adjust itself intellectually and spiritually to the new social order is making itself felt. Education and educational methods must be adapted to the changing situation. While in no way withdrawing guidance, counsel and discipline, it behoves us not to attempt to force children into outworn moulds ; otherwise education will be left behind.

One of the main features of the changed social spirit is the acknowledged right of every child to receive an adequate education. At the same time, there is grave danger of standardization. Among the 'educational novelties' to which Mr. Fisher refers, is the endeavour to find ways of differentiation so that all children need not be forced along the same road. What is to be done for the large majority of English children who will make up the senior schools ?

More and more it is being realized that these children are not uneducable, but rather that, as yet, the right education for them has not been discovered. On all sides we hear expressions of dissatisfaction. Parent, teacher, the man in the street, are all perplexed as to *what* children should learn to fit them for living and, too, as to *how* they should learn it. Are the schools of the day teaching knowledge that will be required of our future citizens? How is it so many adults concur in the opinion that much they learned at school has been of no value to them? An otherwise promising boy at a Public School has no leanings towards classics, and is destined for business. Tradition insists on his spending many hours a week trying to acquire a smattering of a 'subject' he will never master, and never use. Is this intelligent education? We do not advocate the abolition of any subjects, but we stress the need for greater elasticity and more common sense.

No sane supporter of modern education could disagree with these ideals. We are heading away from rigidity, and are perplexed and troubled by the possibilities opening out. The seeming chaos is inevitable in a period of transition. It is a sign of critical investigation, of live thought, of a search for the best, and should be welcomed.

The Need for Common Fundamental Principles

While in every country education is a national problem, nevertheless there must be agreement as to the fundamentals of education. One of the strongest factors in preparing for internationalism is the need for teachers and leaders in all countries to come to agreement on basic points. We need to find out what promotes unconscious international goodwill, what are the barriers to understanding, what material to introduce into a curriculum which will foster the spirit of world citizenship.

The call to every liberal-minded parent and teacher is to think, and not to accept anything either because it has always been done in the past or because it is 'new'. With open minds and sympathetic tolerance we must observe, experiment and record, and then share our common experiences. We are the guardians of

to-morrow. There is much of the past that must be handed on, but there are adjustments and discoveries to be made before we can rest content that we have fulfilled our responsibilities to the children in our care.

First Steps To Freedom

Under this heading we propose to publish a series of one-page articles which will deal with different ways of breaking down the rigidity of formal class work. The first article of the series appears on page 126 and describes how individual work was introduced into two classes in an orthodox school. Other articles will deal with the introduction of self-discipline and will suggest ways of, for example, reorganising the school time-table, of correlating 'subjects' with the child's interests, of co-operating with the parents, of re-furnishing and re-decorating the classroom. We hope the articles may be of practical help to those who are eager to take the first steps towards freedom, and we shall welcome accounts of any classroom experiments that readers may care to send us.

THE NOVEMBER ISSUE

Margaret McMillan, C.H., C.B.E.

THE NURSERY SCHOOL

THE NURSERY IN THE HOME

BOOKS AND READING

**UNTRUTHFULNESS TOWARDS
CHILDREN**

**THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE
PRE-SCHOOL CHILD**

**NURSERY SCHOOLS IN MANY
LANDS**

Dr. C. W. Kimmins on the choice of a 'Prep' School

DURING the course of a friendly talk recently, Dr. C. W. Kimmins explained why he would choose a 'new' preparatory school rather than an orthodox one, even though the boy was going on to one of the conventional Public Schools. Dr. Kimmins is late Chief Inspector of the Education Department of the London County Council, member of the Senate of the University of London, and member of the Governing Board of St. Paul's Schools, of the Leys School (Cambridge), and of Abinger Hill School (Surrey). All of these are boys' schools, so that Dr. Kimmins has had ample opportunity of testing the soundness of his views.

The Public School as it is we have always with us, at least so nearly always that the assertion is justifiable, for changes within the Public School can come only through gradual modification on account of its long, practically unbroken tradition. But the preparatory school is a very different matter. Though some preparatory schools still cling obstinately to the old regime in the belief that preparation for a rigid Public School can be made only in an establishment as rigid, there are others who think differently, and who have no hesitation in saying that boys destined for even the oldest and most conventional of Public Schools can be prepared for them by new ways as effectively as by old. More effectively, said Dr. Kimmins, and proceeded to give his reasons why.

A child up to three years of age lives in a state of omnipotence; he is a potentate. All baby photographs tell the same tale: on each little face, whether solemn or gay, there is the same expression of confident self-assurance that the world was made for one person and for one person only, and the world must mind its step. And the average home training, up to the age of three years, does little to disturb this blissful belief.

A change comes after the age of three. The period of phantasy begins, a period of great creative ability. The sense of omnipotence wanes, the child casts about for something to

counterbalance the knowledge, daily accumulating, that he is no longer all-powerful; he casts about for some explanation of all the wonderful things surrounding him; to give shape to words he knows by sound, but whose meaning is vague to him. He is gathering experience and knowledge at express speed. His sense of power is definitely limited in the external world, so he carries it on into the world of phantasy.

During this period children form what may be called nursery trade unions or even nursery masonic lodges, for there are signs and counter-signs that most grown-ups do not recognize, though some feel a faint stirring of memory. Two small things will stand and stare, unwinking, at each other for seconds, even minutes, on end, and thereafter, without a word spoken, be fast friends. What flash of understanding has passed from one busy brain to the other through the medium of two round eyes? The children know: they are 'in the secret'. And they band together and plot conspiracies which they loose on the heads of devoted grown-ups who, poor things! never in the least understand—or hardly ever. These nursery trade unions are very valuable: they are the first school where one learns to find one's level, to realize and recognize the claims of others, to acknowledge and accept leadership, to defend one's rights, to waive one's opinions. Children who have never had the experience of belonging to a nursery trade union, grow into adolescents and adults who find it difficult to adapt themselves to life and to others.

Continuity in the process of development is very important. Between the ages of three and six, as we know, a child learns to create both with his brain and with his hands. He is rapidly approaching his highest degree of energy; he is busy (given anything like a chance) all day long, in the kindergarten, at home, inside himself. He hums like a small machine going at top speed—which indeed he is. This busy unfolding of creative ability must continue uninterrupted all through the years of school

education. There must be no check, if a child is to grow to useful adulthood and to happiness within himself.

The period between six and ten is fraught with special danger.

A child at this age learns docility; he is prone to hero worship; he tends to model himself after a pattern, to lose his individuality in imitating someone else. This tendency should be counteracted by the encouragement of the creative faculties, by the giving of much opportunity for learning through handwork. A younger child dreams dreams and lives in phantasy, very often among his dream companions. But the child of seven or eight wants above all to 'do'. His great cry is that he has 'nothing to do'; he plaintively asks: 'What can I do, mother?' He must be given the means of doing; in this way he educates himself; in this way his creative life is fostered, drawn from his imagination into his hands. He must be taught to use his eyes, to observe, not merely see. His spirit of adventure must be encouraged by his being allowed to try things and investigate for himself. He must not be laughed at, or be given cause to think that he is a source of amusement to others. How many a personality is the poorer and how many a life the less effective because the efforts at expression in the way of verse or drawing, after a child has become self-conscious—which may occur any time between three and six years of age—have been treated with indulgence or amusement by an uncomprehending adult!

At school, too, the 'you-must' attitude of the teacher should give place to a 'we-will' attitude.

Teacher and children should work together, the teacher finding out and encouraging the main interests, eschewing dead knowledge and memory work. Here Montessori and Dalton

play their part, developing self-discipline, reducing authority and dangerous imitation to a minimum, fostering the creative spirit, and the creative ability that to some degree is the birthright of everyone, encouraging individual work and concentration. Dr. Kimmins told a delightful tale of the days when he, as Inspector of Education, visited a Montessori school about eighteen months after the Montessori method had become recognized in England. He was going about the room, looking at the children's work and watching them, when suddenly a young voice was raised in plaintive protest. 'What is that man walking about for?

Why doesn't he settle down and *do* something?'—with the implication, 'and stop disturbing all us busy people'.

The Project method, Dr. Kimmins thinks, has also a considerable part to play, but there is danger of its being overdone. In America he has seen schemes working that were obviously inspired by the teacher and too much under his control, the children being out of their depth and following and interpreting the teacher's ambitious ideas blindly, instead of finding and using their own. Dr. Kimmins and Miss Belle Rennie (secretary of the Dalton Association, England) are writing a book, *The Triumph of the Dalton Plan*, which should be published some time this autumn, for Dr. Kimmins believes strongly in the Dalton plan, when it is



Dr. C. W. Kimmins

[Photo: Vandyk]

properly carried out.

At this time, too, the intelligence test is of much value. Wisely used, there is no other method of gauging a child's abilities and interests, that is as effective. And also the study of a child's dreams is valuable; for in dreams the real child appears, loosed from the restrictions that even young children soon learn to use as disguise and means of concealment of their real self from others—especially from adults. In dreams the interests of the waking world are continued, and the dreamer foreshadows the lines upon which he is likely to develop. There is little truth in the statement so often made, thinks Dr. Kimmins, that dreaming about a piece of work carried on during the day is a sign of over-tiredness and fag. It is a sign of deep interest, not of worry. And no apprehension need be felt when a child dreams about his school work. The greatest condemnation of the present orthodox scheme of education is that children rarely do dream of school activities, and the reason for this is that there is no spirit of adventure in such school work, that spirit that never allows interest to flag.

Upon the success of this period between the ages of six and ten years depends the position an adolescent will be able to fill in the greater world. Up to the age of fourteen the team or group spirit is developing, but the foundations are laid in the earlier period when the boy is

learning to find and to understand himself, to recognize and to develop his own interests. There is no anomaly, said Dr. Kimmins, in a boy passing on into an orthodox Public School after attending a 'new' preparatory school. By the time the preparatory stage is over, the team spirit will be developed, and having that, a boy will be able to adapt himself to any new regime. It is a great mistake, therefore, to think that boys who have gone to modern preparatory schools cannot fit into orthodox ones. They can, and they do, for the simple reason that they are, by the time they pass in, ready to fit into any group. There is no excuse for parents to say: 'We'd like John to go to one of the new schools, but we can't send him because he has to go on to an ordinary school afterwards'. John will fit into the ordinary school all the better because, from his 'new' preparatory school he will carry on with him his own special interests that have had full play there; he will be independent and, while ready to work with the group and to do as the other boys do, to learn as they learn, he will in addition be able to work, with much satisfaction to himself—and to his new masters—by himself.

For these reasons Dr. Kimmins would choose every time and without any hesitation, the modern preparatory school as the logical continuance of the Montessori school, and the proper forerunner of any other school.

International Notes—continued from page 130

The Society of Friends is inquiring into the possibilities of starting a Friends School in South Africa.

From *Pacific Affairs* we learn that there are now over sixty primary schools in Mongolia, and one middle school and one normal school in Urga. The Central Institute of Party Affairs, which is under the direct supervision of the Central Executive Committee of the party, is the highest institution of education. All other schools are under the administration of the Ministry of Education. These schools use the Mongolian language, and it is hoped thereby to inculcate a sense of nationality in the pupils. A large number of students are receiving specialized education abroad, including over fifty in Germany, twenty in France, and about one hundred in Russia.

The National Education Association of the United States will hold its Convention in Los Angeles early

in July 1931. The Association has adopted a resolution advocating the teaching of the Paris Pact in schools, and urging the observance of World Goodwill Day, 18th May.

The new programme of broadcasts to schools for the academic year 1930-31 has now been published by the British Broadcasting Corporation, and may be obtained free on application to the B.B.C., Savoy Hill, London, W.C.2, post free, one penny. A detachable time-table is included.

The World Federation of Education Associations will hold its Fourth Biennial Conference in Denver, Colorado, some time about the last week in July 1931.

The Pan-Pacific Section of the World Federation of Education Associations will hold a Conference in 1932. Those interested should write to the Headquarters of the Pan-Pacific Union, Honolulu, Hawaii.

History—The Dalton Plan

HELEN PARKHURST

Principal of The Dalton School, New York City ; originator of the Dalton Plan

TO comply with the request, to explain 'how history is taught' on the Dalton Plan in my own laboratory school, is difficult, because there is no such thing as a *subject* on the Dalton Plan. With us it is *living* on the Dalton Plan. We believe that mere subjects negative our aims, and do not form a proper basis for curricula. I shall, however, attempt to show how a love for history is created.

To-day it is a commonly accepted fact that it is the whole child who is exercised. He is not exercised physically at one time, at another time exercised intellectually, and at still another time exercised spiritually, but he is exercised physically, intellectually and spiritually, simultaneously. If he is to be really educated, we must see to it that every pursuit permits him to be exercised in this manner.

Subjects have been well taught in the past ; boys and girls were neglected. To-day we teach boys and girls. We place the emphasis upon boys and girls, because when formerly subjects were taught as if the mind was divided into separate compartments, it was found that even in the hands of excellent instructors, boys' and girls' characters became disintegrated, but when pupils were brought in contact with an all-absorbing idea, sufficiently extensive, incorporating the elements of history, geography, literature, English, etc., properly integrated, subject barriers were broken down. Then, in a proper setting, where the idea could be lived and experienced dramatically, then, and only then, did boys' and girls' characters really become integrated.

'Integration' is the real crux of to-day's educational debate, and the pioneers of the new order want an idea programme. The idea programme was the intention of the proponents of the project, and so in 1928, when the word 'project' as commonly understood was deemed insufficient to indicate the new platform, someone wisely suggested 'activity programmes'. The word 'activity' combined with the word 'integrating' suggests well fused experiences.

For the present at least, we of the progressive school group in America are for 'activity programmes'.

We cannot predict what the needs of the future will be, but we do know that then, as now, the nation will need great leaders, 'capable of exerting new influence' because of the new and changed situations. The necessary 'great leaders' will only grow out of integrated children.

When my book, *Education on the Dalton Plan*, was published in 1922, it offered no solution to the gigantic task of curricula reconstruction, but rather recorded a single attempt from 1910 to 1922 to reorganise the social structure of the school. For my part, I tried to make the propounding of curricula secondary in order to emphasise a new type of school living. English contributors to the book, however, reversed this procedure, and emphasised curricula.

Now the aim of the Dalton Plan was *to create a new type of educational society* by putting boys and girls under entirely different conditions of living from those provided in the ordinary classroom, and to reorganize the community life of the school. For our model we took the conditions of everyday life outside. We emphasised *conditions* rather than pursuits, because although the two cannot in truth be separated, we wanted an easily perceived new premise. Again, we emphasised *conditions* realizing that the old social order was a product created and preserved by the old school, excellent in its day, but considerably out of date, and we realized that the pursuits of to-day, are, in reality, only the fruit of the past.

My first experiments with the laboratory plan, now called 'the Dalton Laboratory Plan', began in 1910. Our New York school is now fourteen years old, but in the Dalton School as early as 1922, we were engaged in trying to select integrating experiences for our newly organized school society. We were testing both our faith and our methods. The new order threw overboard the old curricula. Whereas

*The Zones of the World*[*The Dalton School, New York*]

our faith in boys and girls increased, our faith in the methods of the old order waned daily. We discovered that the change necessitated much *group* thinking on the part of the staff; not only was our job to re-make a school, but we had on our hands the life and death task of re-making ourselves.

The three principles of the Dalton Plan, designed to create a new social order, were Freedom, Interaction of Group Life, and Budgeting of Time. Each member of the staff held a different, if not unique idea of freedom, but we were in agreement as to the value of 'Interaction of Group Life' as important and fundamental for a new society, and we all felt 'Budgeting of Time' was important.

With us, 'Interaction of Group Life' means the intermingling, 'hob-nobbing', if you will,

of a sector of the school, comprising at least three grades of pupils, confronted with ideas for problems; living and *working together*; with the same teachers, in the same, therefore shared, common work shops, or as we say, 'laboratories'. Perhaps I can justify our point of view, and reconcile prejudiced readers by saying that we found our procedure created a thirst for history, literature, and other 'subjects'.

At the outset, each class had one big, central idea which was the basis for the year's study. We decided that so far as curricula were concerned, that for ourselves, at least, we would not divide academic work into separate subjects, but we would start with a fusion. This was a compromise, but remember, in those days our lights were dim, and we did not clearly see the way. We chose for our fusing topic 'Civilization'.

In response to 'What are you studying?' the answer of a fourth grade pupil, or a fifth, or a sixth, or of any grade above the fourth, was always the same 'Civilization'. To be sure, one class might be studying the Greek civilization, another Roman, and still another Oriental civilization, but the curriculum was always 'Civilization'. All civilizations were studied in order. Invariably the 'die-hards' who came in hordes to visit us would say: 'But how do you teach history, or mathematics?' Our answer was, 'We don't'; but we turned these sceptics into our laboratories where they saw convincing research going on in those fields.

I go into certain details which may be helpful to those who desire, as we did, to make their first attempts.

Our purpose was (1) To study civilization for the purpose of showing what intelligence has achieved and what has been its procedure. (2) To give pupils a synthetic view of progress. (3) To help pupils construct an outlook of their own. (4) To develop a spirit of tolerance and international-mindedness, creating a feeling of spiritual brotherhood, demanding peace.

Our method was (1) Subject matter should be taught from the standpoint of development. (2) Emphasise continually—change and anticipation of change, to have a new conception of man and the universe.

Briefly, our skeleton outlines for the treatment of any civilization were as follows:—

A

PUPIL'S OUTLINE

Civilization—A Study of Man

Records of:

- (1) Man's progress.
- (2) Man's environment—where he lived, i.e. the setting, kind of house, food, clothes, weapons etc.;
- (3) Man's beliefs—superstitions, religious rites and ceremonials, as found in a study of folklore, inscriptions, art etc.
- (4) Man's failures;
- (5) Man's achievements;
- (6) Man's contributions to art, i.e. invention, social progress etc.;
- (7) How man has effected or prevented peace—The relationship of the past to the present and the future.

As I now regard it, B was a reconciliation statement.

B

TEACHER'S OUTLINE

Civilization—A Study of Man

Records of:

- (1) Man's progress—history.
- (2) Man's environment—geography.
- (3) Man's beliefs—literature.
- (4) Man's failures—science and social science.
- (5) Man's achievements—science and social science.
- (6) Man's contributions to art—science and art.
- (7) How man has effected or prevented peace—science and social science.

We have always felt it quite as necessary to understand man's failures as his achievements, and even young children were amazed to see the similarity between their own daily struggles and the struggles of a nation, when viewed with the perspective which a study of the past permits. One little boy of ten, with the excitement of sudden discovery, said: 'Why, Murray, it just occurs to me that your downfall is really predicted, because, just as the Roman Empire did, you are getting lazy, and you should watch out from your heights!'

One day, as I took away a partially finished pictorial map to use in a lecture, a little girl whose work I unconsciously, but unfortunately, interrupted, said: 'Oh, Miss Parkhurst, you too are bound to butcher us to make a Roman holiday!'

Reflective thinking was not a problem, it was everywhere apparent. One child declared that she had learned a lot studying the Greeks, but she looked forward to really '*becoming better*', i.e. improving her character, when she could find out how the Chinese reached such heights in their art and painting, 'as Lucille had described'.

The three grades of any sector met freely in common laboratories, and, as children will, exchanged ideas. As each class had its own civilization, three civilizations were being studied—a world was being built up simultaneously. Models of houses and villages were about, and as theories were tested, we found mere textbooks were not sufficient to satisfy

eager curiosities. Much source material was added. More was needed, and the staff began to write reference books, finding texts inadequate.

In the fourth, fifth and sixth grades, it was announced that at the end of the year a play would be substituted for the final examination. This sounds easy, until you realize how much must be known to produce a play, especially when you must be really familiar with the habits of the people you are to depict and must intelligently represent the great artists and political leaders and be able to discuss their friezes or their international problems as your own! Although interesting and absorbing, play making and acting then become difficult.

For special research (because, after all, a year is a limited time) classes were divided into four or five groups, each group being held responsible for some contribution it was to make to the class as a whole. In order to make the work alive and real, each time a class met, the class meeting was treated as a play rehearsal. Each time, a plot was quickly outlined, sometimes for a scene, sometimes for an act, depending upon the time interval between class meetings. Then the individual members of the class were cast, and the chronicles were dramatized as far as their discoveries and research permitted. Very often a potential play writer brought in his voluntary night's labour to be tried out by a group of contemporaries next morning.

With a teacher, I once chanced to come upon a little group under the direction of a classmate, quietly 'trying out' a political discussion in a corner of a laboratory. 'How is your play going?' inquired the teacher. The would-be director replied seriously, 'The play is all right, but, it doesn't *act*!'

In the theatre, I attended a conference. The topic of the day's discussion was 'Socrates and his Dialogues'. Preliminary discussion had shown no way to introduce Xantippe as a character. The scene showed Socrates in Athens—walking round the Agora with his pupils. They sat down to continue a discussion, in true Socratic fashion. An established rule of our class play acting is that, as it must materially fix important events etc., no irrelevant conversation may be introduced merely to fill in, being a waste of time. A character intro-

duced has to explain work, and make his part significant and important to the time portrayed. The dialogues were going well; great intelligence was shown in the choice of questions. Stenographic notes record what transpired.

Socrates (age 8) proceeded: 'I don't believe in all the Greek gods; I only believe in one real God.'

Pupil: 'I believe in the Greek Gods. Why don't you?'

Socrates: 'I believe in the divine voice within me.'

Another Pupil: 'Well, Socrates, I don't think you're right.'

Plato (who has just come in): 'I think Socrates is right.'

Socrates: 'Fine! Fine! Here is the first man who has agreed with me.'

Plato: 'I am your pupil, Socrates, and you are my teacher.'

All Pupils: 'Socrates is right! Socrates is right!'

There was a pause for reflection on the part of Socrates. It had been pre-arranged to introduce travellers of the time. Earlier than expected, however, a merchant from India entered, riding an elephant. Feeling that the lull in conversation meant action, and mistaking it for his cue, the merchant called out: 'Ivory to sell, ivory to sell! Two pieces of gold!' Interrupting Socrates' question as it did, the pupils were somewhat disconcerted, but Socrates himself, with great dignity, turned and said, 'Ivory to sell—ivory? My pupils, that gives me an idea. I shall take some to my wife, Xantippe. It will soothe her.' The day was saved—Xantippe had been introduced!

Another rule is that all conversation shall be spontaneous. There are no written or memorized 'parts'. At the beginning of a class, immediately after roll call, the characters are cast. New material is always introduced conversationally. The ease with which young actors make real conversation out of research material is amazing.

During the whole year the play is being built, bit by bit, and then comes the final examination. The pupils are summoned the day before, and an instructor selects the cast for the last time. Each one has been in every rôle many times, so group thinking and acting is not a problem.

There is a scurry for the costume room, and some thirty costumes made during the year, as real research, as well as old ones from former times, are tried on and adjusted. It is sometimes necessary for the characters to change parts, when, as frequently, it is found that a pupil cannot be squeezed into the proper costume! Next day, before the entire school, a class group gives final proof of its knowledge of the civilization studied.

Perhaps there are some who still have the idea that the Dalton Plan is a device for individual instruction. As the originator of the plan, I can only say it was never my intent to preclude classes, or class groups, because the play of mind upon mind seems to me invaluable. However, I do not believe that classes set days in advance, according to a fixed schedule, are anywhere nearly as valuable as those called without warning, by a bulletin posted in the morning, sometimes for 10 o'clock, sometimes for 11, or 12, as the case may be. Needs should be cared for and satisfied as they arise. Preparedness is a watch word. Everyone is always eager and expectant. Emergencies being a part of daily life, they are expected and accepted as they arise with concomitant training through real experience.

Briefly, I will try to show another type of work employing a useful Dalton technique, which would be *impossible* if individual instruction were the rule.

A seventh grade class was building a background for the study of our American civilization. The class was divided into five groups, each group to study one of the five cultural areas of North America, i.e. the North West, the South West, the North East, the South East, and the Plains. Five research topics were announced, i.e. food, shelter, transportation, art and legends. The five groups met, and each

group chose a topic for group research.

This study took approximately three months, and then for another three-month period, each group was asked to choose its favourite area. This time they were to construct a play, the aim of which, for each group, was to depict not only the results of its own special research in a given

area, but to portray all the contributions made to the class by all five groups. Thus, here, a group dramatizing the South West constructed a pueblo village, made the pottery and weapons of that area, learned the dances and songs, wove their rugs, and learned their ceremonials as well as made a careful study of costumes, preliminary to making the actual costumes to be worn in the play. The amount of Indian material contributed was



The Model Chosen for the Chinese Street
[The Dalton School, New York]

unbelievable, and as authentic as material could be, when not made by the Indians themselves. The authorities of the Natural History Museum in New York were sufficiently interested to invite children, for the first time, to exhibit their material in the Indian Wing of the Museum, beside the collection of authentic Indian material. Following this study, the school arranged to import a group of Western Indians for the benefit of the children. During the visit, the Indians pursued their crafts, exhibited their jewellery and rugs and lived at the school.

The experiences enumerated were real, and were cultural, but we were not satisfied. We sought a still more intensive social experience, knowing that in the right medium, it could not fail to be even more cultural.

For a long time I had been turning over an idea based upon our second principle, 'Interaction of Group Life'. I had thought to try an experiment in our middle school; to have the three classes study one, instead of three, civilizations, simultaneously. I argued that if

three grades, simultaneously, studied one civilization each year, that in three years, each grade would have studied the required three civilizations. Also, if three grades collaborated in studying a single civilization, there would be time and energy for a more exhaustive study than any single class could make in a year's time.

Our problem was where to begin. The largest group of my collaborators, and those with me over a long period of years, were in the middle school, so again the middle school became a centre of experiment. As these instructors were accustomed to my eleventh hour proposals, they gave ear to my plan.

The sixth grade had studied the Greek civilization; and the Roman civilization; the fifth grade had studied the Greek civilization, and the fourth grade was ready to begin a similar study. As a civilization that had not been studied would make the experiment more interesting, we agreed upon China.

I still remember with chagrin how, in my late teens, when I began to travel extensively, I was forced to admit that there were other countries of importance besides America! When I visited the Orient, I felt cheated because I was so unprepared to appreciate and enjoy the environment and people I contacted. This lack of preparedness is at the root of our international misunderstandings. With inventions bringing civilizations in closer contact, it is important that we educate children differently, if they are to become factors in preserving international peace.

Therefore, in our school, we thoroughly study Oriental civilization. Significantly, we

study all of the other civilizations before making an intensive study of our own.

Three years ago the sixth grade made a large, illustrated map of China. The next year the sixth grade declared they would study China differently from their predecessors, who, as an older class, had shared laboratories with them, and carried on their research under the very eyes of the then fifth grade. They finally decided to depict a road through China, from the legendary time of Pan Ku, the creator of the universe, up through the beginnings of the Republic.

But now we must have not only a new experience, but a superbly integrating one. We had lived creatively in old, but adequately renovated, buildings, and just at this point in our school career, we acquired a specially constructed new building, built according to



The Chinese Street

[*The Dalton School, New York*

our own ideas, with spacious corridors and large rooms. There are times when material resources are satisfying. Finally we hit upon the idea of turning the corridor flanked on either side by laboratories, into a Chinese street, with Chinese shops and gates and walls. A contest was started among the three classes for a model of a Chinese street. Many models were made, and finally the one here pictured was chosen.

Corrugated paper was found an excellent substitute for tiled roof construction. Many conferences were held. Pupils went to their favourite teachers for long discussions, and for days, everything gave way to the actual construction of the street. Artists and artisans worked together. Teachers and pupils joined forces and worked diligently with saws, hammers and nails and building materials. Young painters

appeared with brushes and huge pots of paint, dangling from tall ladders. Professionally, nothing has ever made me happier than that scene. I rejoiced in the richness of the childhood about me, although I had been denied such experiences at their age.

The news of China spread, and the other parts of the school, Primary, Junior High, Senior High, came to visit and looked on enviously. Visits were paid to China Town. Distinguished Chinese came and volunteered their services in making Chinese signs for the laboratories, and like frontier pioneers, after two weeks, the children were living in a Chinese environment. The boys wore queues, the girls wore special head-dresses, and every one who was on time in the morning trotted about during the day in a hand-made, gay Chinese costume.

One of our staff is a great proponent of integration. At last she, too, was satisfied. China was in full swing on her birthday in April, and a Chinese festival was proclaimed by her

admirers in the middle school. But China had fired the imagination of, and had captivated, the entire school, so not one, but four, Chinese birthday festivals were held on the same day. Our integration specialist invited a famous Chinese classical scholar to attend the celebration, and together they appeared dressed in the real costumes of a Chinese Emperor and Empress. One little boy rushed up to me and said: 'If you don't watch out, you will *turn right into a Chinese*, Miss Parkhurst !'

At the end of the year, they were familiar with Chinese art, Chinese pottery, Chinese customs, yes, and Chinese history ! They wrote and gave many Chinese plays, and as the little boy said, 'were almost Chinese'.

A petition was circulated by the pupils throughout the school to repeat the experiment, not only in the middle school, but to carry on similar experiments in all of the schools. We are ready to carry out their request, because a staff of eighty-five people has become group-minded. Subjects are dead, but we are alive !

The League of Nations : Notes from Geneva

C. W. JUDD

SELDOM is the Conference Table at Geneva more picturesque than during the meetings of the International Committee of Intellectual Co-operation. For Einstein, for Gilbert Murray and for those other intellectual giants who constitute the committee, this summer has been a busy one. They have reorganized the Paris Institute from top to bottom. They have also given serious consideration to the Instruction of Youth in the Aims of the League and have adopted a report by the Sub-Committee of Experts on that subject.

Amongst those present at the Sub-Committee this year were a Professor of History from Milan, the Director of Secondary Education at Bukarest, the Foreign Minister of Denmark, the Director of Primary Education in France, a Counsellor at the Prussian Ministry of Education, and a Professor of Greek from Oxford. Reviewing the present position country by country, the Sub-Committee was able to reach the conclusion that its previous recommendations 'have had the most encouraging reception from the public ; and in many countries the majority of international associations, national associations, professional bodies of teachers and professors have effectively helped to spread a knowledge of the League among young people'.

In the light of experience several of the recommendations were revised, greater emphasis was

placed on the value of the cinematograph screen and wireless in the promotion of international understanding, and steps were taken to secure a better provision of League Documents in Public Libraries. A proposal that the League should summon a World Education Conference representing Governments, Education Authorities and teachers was discussed and will no doubt be further considered.



July and August are also the season of summer schools. At the Geneva Institute of International Relations, meeting in the League's offices ; at the Geneva School of International Studies directed by Professor Zimmern ; and at the courses offered by the International Bureau of Education, men and women engaged in public affairs, a party of lecturers from the Teachers Training Colleges in Great Britain, undergraduates, professors and school teachers, and even members of the American Senate, have made an intensive study of the League, or considered its place in the work of the schools. Judged by their insatiable thirst for knowledge, none of these were keener than the boys and girls from the upper forms of British Public and Secondary Schools, who constituted the League of Nations Union's Second Junior Summer School.

Professor Jean Piaget on Moral Realities in Child Life

At a lecture given recently under the auspices of the Home and School Council in London, Professor Jean Piaget, Professor at the University of Geneva, Director of the Bureau International d'Education, Geneva, author of 'The Child's Conception of the World', etc., described the practical methods by which he studies the awakening and growth of moral judgment in children.

‘WHAT are the moral realities in the life of a child’, asked Professor Piaget; ‘or to give the question a wider application, what are the moral realities in the life of an individual?’

‘Duty has been defined as habit, or as a bias towards goodness that makes necessary a kind of adaptation. But these explanations of morality are superficial, and we must go deeper into the subject if we would understand it.

‘We perceive clearly that morality supposes not only a psychology of the individual but also a psychology of the relationships existing between the various individuals composing a social group.

‘Professors Baldwin and Bovet have two different explanations of morality. That of Professor Baldwin is well known. Professor Bovet’s explanation presupposes two conditions as necessary and sufficient to cause sensitiveness to duty and morality. First, there must be external rules or commands; and second, external rules or commands are not sufficient in them-



Professor Jean Piaget

selves, because they are merely external; the individual must have towards the one who issues the command a feeling of respect, that is, a blending of fear and love.

‘It is not enough, then, that there should be a rule. There must also be this feeling of respect, which is the first hypothesis. A serious problem now arises. How does child consciousness attain this feeling, which is the foundation of morality? We adults are no longer dominated by external rules. We feel that we have a right to judge the social group to which we belong, and its rules, its commands and its compulsions. The child also at a certain age criticizes his parents and passes judgment on their rules. He acquires slowly, progressively, his inner autonomy, which is the

basis of morality. How is that autonomy acquired?

‘I have directed my own studies’, Professor Piaget continued, ‘to the elucidation of this point, which is the feeling for goodness, and my method is to analyse this respect which the

child feels, not only towards his elders but also towards his equals. This analysis shows me that there are two kinds of respect, which give rise to two different moral attitudes.

'The first is one-sided respect, unilateral respect, that which is felt by the inferior towards the superior, by the younger towards the elder, by the child towards the adult. It produces that feeling of compulsion which is the explanation of the feeling for duty and which leads to heteronomy—dependence on others—and to imposed morality.

'The second form of respect is mutual respect. This links together two equal individuals, for example, two children of eleven or twelve playing together and respecting each of them the conventions of their games.

'The distinction is very important, because this latter mutual respect is not accompanied by outer compulsion, and it leads to co-operation and self-dependence, not to dependence on others. On the other hand it explains the development and the effects of autonomy, and that feeling for goodness which is one of the forms of autonomous morality.

'In order to study the distinction between these two different kinds of respect and the different effects to which they give rise, I adopt the following method in my study of children. We analyse the relations between children and children. But we require to understand what mutual respect means in order to understand our problem. There is a moment when one kind of respect yields to the other; what is it that causes the change?

'In order to find out, we need to study the relationships of children in a social group which is a society of children. The most simple case for this investigation, I have found, is a group of children playing together a game which has rules they all obey. The game I use for the study is the game of marbles, and the study has two aims. *First*, to see how the rules are applied. The way to investigate is to play with the children. During lesson time I call one of them and tell him I have forgotten how I used to play marbles, and that I want to learn the rules again; I then make mistakes on purpose to see how the child corrects them, and in this way I learn that the rules of the game are many, varied and very complex.

'The *second* aim is to understand how a child feels towards the rules, what judgments he passes upon them. My method is to ask him whether he can invent new rules. The game of marbles, for example, may be played within a square. We change the square into a triangle; if the new rule which the child invents to fit the altered circumstances is to become general for all his friends, will it be a real rule having compulsion for everyone?

'By comparing the findings, we arrive at the distinction between the two kinds of respect.

'The first aim, I have said, is to find out how the rule is applied. With the younger children, we find that each one applies the rule without any reference to the others. He has received the rules from his elders. He does not understand them, but he believes he obeys them, that is, he obeys as much as he has understood of them. So that the applications of the same rule are different with different children: each one is preoccupied only with his own play, and when the end of the game comes, and the question, Who has won? is asked, everyone says that *he* has.

'When we study the way in which the older ones apply the rules, we find respect for external rules increasing up to the age of eleven or twelve years, the time when the rules have the greatest complexity, and when penalties are given for breaking them.

'It is curious to notice how they can understand the many and complex rules of these games, yet find it so difficult to understand and apply the rules of spelling. We find here, in games, the most meticulous obedience to rules.

'As to the second problem of consciousness—the attitude towards rules—I have found results which contradicted my own hopes. The younger ones have more respect for a rule than the older ones. They obey it badly, but they have no wish to change it. The older rule is an absolute. It has nothing to do with custom. If they are asked who made the rules, they say they were made by adults, by God, by Adam and Eve, and so on.

'To the older ones the rules are equally sacred, but for a different reason: because they are a mutual convention, an agreement between equals. If the majority changes an old rule, the new one becomes law; and it is quite normal

to change the rules if the majority is in agreement. If I ask who made the rules, they say children themselves made them.

' Thus we see that those who apply the rule less well are those who have the highest respect for it, and those who apply it better consider that law is relative and can be changed.

' Here are, then, the two kinds of respect, the one of which is one-sided, and has no part in the children's moral conscience. The other respect is mutual, has become part of the personality of the child. Here we find true obedience, true feeling for goodness.

' We may go a step further. One-sided respect produces a feeling for duty, but it is external to the child. On the other hand, mutual respect creates the autonomy of morality, the feeling for goodness, and in practice leads to a truer realization of morality than the other.

' If we look at the result produced on the moral judgment of children by the first rules imposed on them by adults, we see that that compulsion produces specific phenomena in the childish consciousness. It gives rise to what I might call moral realism—the morality of the letter as opposed to the spirit, and the criterion of that realism appears in the idea of responsibility which we find in young children, and which has been described by sociologists as resulting from the compulsion of the social group upon the individual. It is objective responsibility: if the form of the act contradicts a rule, then the act is the act of a guilty person.

' But contrarily, when we study the morality of mutual respect, we find that it is a morality of intention, of inner motives; a criterion of responsibility there ceases to be the outer or material form of the act. It becomes linked with the intention. What do we find in the child when we study him from that point of view? The best example is found in the study of childish lying. Lying is a special case where we can test, inquire into and observe the egocentric mentality of a child. With regard to the rules imposed by the adult, as Stirling and his pupils have shown, children up to seven years of age have no need for truthfulness. Their statements are dictated by their desire or by their wish, but, being so, they cannot be defined as true lies, infringing moral laws, as

what in German is called *Scheinlüge* (false lying), and as the impression of that which the child thinks and feels in himself regardless of whether it has any bearing in true reality.

' What, then, will the rules imposed by adults produce in the mentality of the younger child? Adults, as a rule, intervene very quickly, and punish, teaching that to lie is wrong and to tell the truth is right. The rule of truthfulness is thus quickly imposed on the child. But when the contact between the rule of truth-telling and the mentality of the child occurs too soon, we find that the child accepts the rule imposed upon him as he accepts the rules of a game of marbles. He does believe that he acts wrongly when he tells a lie, but in practice he does not succeed in making the change in his moral outlook: he merely accepts the verdict of the adult and its penalty.

' We tell a child two stories, and ask him which is the worse lie—one story implies a very unlikely statement, and the other a likelier one but with a worse intention. These are the examples: (1) A boy walking along a road sees a dog. He is afraid of it, and, running home, says he has seen a dog as big as a cow. (2) A child whose mistress pays no attention to him at school, goes home and tells his mother that he has been given a good mark; his mother, pleased, rewards him with a piece of chocolate.

' The child is asked which of these two stories is the bigger or uglier lie. To the younger child the uglier lie is the first, because it is more unlikely. The reason he gives is that it never happens that a dog is as big as a cow. Therefore it is immediately to be detected as a lie and the mother has immediately seen that it was one. But older children judge in the opposite way: it was possible for the child to have received a good mark, and the mother believed it. So that children of the two ages give the same reason, but reversed.

' If they are asked whether it is worse to lie to adults or to their young companions, the younger children say that it is worse to lie to adults; but at eleven or twelve years of age, they say that it is worse to lie to their compeers. So that as we follow the development of childish morality, we perceive the growth of the feeling that the intention is a better basis for morality than the mere outward aspect of the act.

How shall we Think about Religion?*

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HOW to think about religion is a difficult question to answer, especially to the satisfaction of others. Probably no two people who think much about it think exactly alike. Possibly it is impossible that they should. But the importance of the problem stands even surer because of the difficulty. If ever man needed integration of outlook and attitude, surely it is now.

The effort here made, however, is not so much to answer the question as to suggest a way of looking at it. Many do not know how to think about religion. Most have been taught that it is not to be thought about in an open-minded way but rather to be accepted on some basis of authority. Indeed 'thought' and 'faith' have often been opposed as essentially antagonistic. The opposite ground is here taken. We must think if we are to hope for a defensible position.

The procedure followed here is very simple, namely, to take certain conceptions which figure prominently in religion and look at some of their most obvious historic variations. The aim here, it should be made clear at the outset, is not to convey knowledge of these facts—for this the writer is not competent, he is not expert in the field of comparative religions—rather is the aim to call attention to the continuity in the variation and to see certain relationships emerging, both to the end that certain essential aspects of these concepts (and of concepts in general) may be made more evident. It is thus hoped that clearer thinking will result.

The conceptions for study are six in number: the conception of God, the will of God, prayer, worship, faith and salvation. That these hopelessly overlap and intermingle is most true, and the fact entails some undesirable repetition in the discussion. But in spite of all this, the conceptions chosen seem to justify themselves as

representing significantly different aspects of the religious experience.

1. The Conception of God.—‘Many men, many minds’, was perhaps never better illustrated than in the diversity of ways in which men have conceived the gods or God or ‘Reality’ or reality. If we put the older and more naïve outlook at the left end of a scale,

E' E

we shall place toward E the polytheistic belief in many gods, patterned it would seem on the model of powerful humans (tyrants). These might be friendly or unfriendly, or at times the one and at other times the other. Speaking generally, these gods have in high degree the characteristics, both the strengths and the frailties, of their times. They expect to be treated with respect, at times to be propitiated. They may require sacrifices. They are tribal and as such are likely to be jealous.

Next to the right, but itself spread over a considerable stretch, comes monotheism. In it nearest to E we find a highly anthropomorphic deity, tribal, given to anger, vengeful. The Old Testament at its worst gives a good portrayal of this. Farther to the right comes the loving Father, still distinctly personal. His traits are in general more like those we admire among present-day men. Yet farther to the right, God appears as impersonal, and this again variously conceived. For some it is 'the power not our selves making for righteousness'. To others it is 'the Absolute', 'the Reality', of Hegelian philosophy. To Spinoza it was 'Deus sive Natura' ('God, or if you prefer, Nature'). Closer still to E' we shall find simply the universe, no more. This it was that Margaret Fuller 'accepted'—which brought from Carlyle the famous *bon mot*, 'Gad, she'd better'.

Some may object that so non-religious a conception as the simple universe does not belong on the same scale with, say, the Christian God. In defence it may be replied, that whatever conception of God the most orthodox may care

* A chapel talk given before the students of Teachers College. This article is being published simultaneously by *Child Study* (New York), *New Era* (London), and *The Intercollegian* (New York).

to name, it is perfectly possible to find next to it towards the right another conception of God differing so slightly that even this most orthodox one would accept it as permissible. And as 'leg over leg the dog went to Dover', so here by steps no longer than this we can go step by step from this most orthodox position to the universe most simply conceived. If we were to stand the men themselves in a row, each would, as regards his conception of God or reality, 'fellowship' his immediate neighbour in whatever faith he himself held, though many could name a position farther to the right which to them was clearly 'heterodox'.

2. The Will of God.—Let us take these words as presenting for us a single conception, in spite of the fact that it was originally formulated (at a point nearer apparently to E than to E') in terms of the constituent conceptions of 'will' and 'God'. The oneness of the conception we shall perhaps sense better as we see it vary from one extreme to the other.

The dependence of this conception on the preceding is on the whole evident. Towards the extreme left we find more or less permanent taboos sacredly guarded. (These are apparently trial-and-error solutions to social problems made so slowly and in so distant a past as to be regarded quite beyond human contriving.) Along with these come also more temporary and even contradictory demands from the various deities as reported by their acknowledged or professed spokesmen. Among these spokesmen we can at times distinguish the prophets from the priests, the former as the innovators who are more 'up-to-date' in their calls, the latter as the especial guardians of the received tradition, defenders of the *status quo*, often with some admixture of vested interest at stake. Continuous with these but farther to the right are higher codes of morals (to our view) and religious ritual promulgated under the authority of one God. The distinction between priest and prophet may be even more pronounced. Still farther to the right comes the felt inadequacy of precise literal prescriptions and formal ceremonies. We find the prophets saying in His name: 'I hate your burnt offerings', and 'What doth the Lord require of thee, but to do justly, and to love mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God'? Or, as a woman of India told me,

'The Brahman is not a matter of birth but of the heart'. Many among us count that Jesus made the best and possibly the final statement of this attitude. Still farther to the right would come the Logos doctrine first formulated (it seems) by Philo and the analogous systems of the Buddhist, Hindu, and the (Hegelian) Idealists, which offer us very impersonal and inclusive conceptions to furnish guidance on human outlook and attitude. Still farther to the right come the more positive and experimental teachings from experience, altogether the best (their adherents say) that we can learn, everything considered.

3. Prayer.—Prayer is most obviously the correlative of the first conception. Towards E we have the propitiation of fearful and perhaps hostile devil-gods. Towards the right a (to us) more defensible deity, with prayer to fit. Still further the conception of a loving Father, with prayer as 'the soul's sincerest desire, unuttered or expressed'. Farthest toward E', perhaps the unselfish effort at an unprejudiced search for truth.

4. Worship.—Worship is very close to prayer, but still perhaps distinguishable. Towards the left, often fearful rites to horrible gods. Then pleasanter rites and ceremonies reaching up to the most beautiful and calming religious ritual yet devised. To the outsider the effect is not easy either to analyse or classify, but it seems probable that the 'æsthetic' is present as a real psychological factor. Mystical experiences seem to distribute themselves widely on the scale. Wonder and awe, to the right, pave the way for a 'natural piety' as one faces the striking manifestations of nature.

5. Faith.—Where religion is a concern, the word faith perhaps best represents its crucial effectual presence. It, too, most obviously, varies with its object. Towards the left faith in the gods may often be closely bound up with tribal loyalty. Both here and farther to the right fear is a definite element, with obedience to personally given commands as the correlative virtue. Still farther to the right, it may be the personal acceptance of a 'plan of salvation', perhaps logically defined and defended, perhaps only generally understood. Yet farther, the faith that the universe is favourable to the moral life (thus furnishing for these what they

feel as a surer basis for morals). Still farther comes such an active and satisfying acceptance of one's deepest insight into life as yields the personal integration needed for facing life's problems.

The fuller inwardness of the word faith hardly appears until we take account of the precariousness of life and the liability of man to error and failure. At times strong effort brings success where lesser efforts would fail. At other times no effort could suffice. Knowledge gives a basis for judging, but always the event may disappoint. It is in this situation that faith finds its place. Let a fair canvass give some grounds for hope. Faith is the active will to risk the effort.

So defined, faith is many. Before each effort goes its faith. But there is a wider and deeper faith which undergirds the separate faiths, and this is the faith we have in the deepest insight we can get (under the first conception studied above) into the character of God or of the universe. It is the great hypothesis. We can never prove it. Faith resolves that it shall be true. Men—and times—vary in the strength they have of such faith. Some men and some times look clearly into life and grasp it firmly. They risk great efforts to make their faith true, and they live accordingly great. Our time is confused. Many are asking. They do not see clearly. They do not make up mind or heart into one. They lack the great faith.

6. Salvation.—This in a sense is the end and summation of all so far considered. In a way man has always sought salvation. So many and diverse have been the roads followed that to scale them is not easy. Towards the left, it has been the happy lot in this world or the next that man has sought. And the gods, many or one, have in intent often been used as means to that end. Farther along, the felt strain between human 'natural' impulse and the divine command brought sense of sin as transgression. Salvation then changed its possible content. With some it might still be merely a saving from objective evil. With others the wish would rather be for release from sin with the sense of pardon and reconciliation, an at-onement with God. But this goes best with a personal God. Farther to the right, the sense of sin changes. As good and right become more

inherent in the situation, withdrawal from wrong-doing may be just as definite but is more concerned with causes and with consequences. With consequences, that the evil effects may be noted and, if possible, stopped; even more, that next time may be better managed. With causes, that 'forewarned may be forearmed', studying the origin and genesis of this act, we know where better to take hold next time. Salvation then at this point on the scale becomes more a matter of healthy integration and outlook, with effectual means for dealing with affairs as they arise. Three elements and factors here converge and interact: an inclusive outlook on life and insight into its conditions, personal integration within and without, and an effectual practical intelligence. Without outlook there can be no satisfactory integration, and practical efficiency must serve both.

After this survey what is the situation? Do we conclude that man is 'incurably religious'? In the aggregate, probably yes. Every individual? Probably no. What then do we mean by religion? It seems now increasingly clear that personal religion is a certain way of giving one's self to what one counts most significant. And what is included in this 'certain way'? What are the earmarks? Two elements seemingly present themselves. The one, that the religious man does in fact take this 'most significant' to be his background basis as he accords value in life's decisions. Each decision is made in the light of its bearing on this 'most significant'. The other aspect of the religious life is the characteristic emotional attitude which accompanies. The 'most significant' has not been proved so in advance of trial. The religious man has chosen it so for himself; he wills it. It shall prove so, That it shall prove so is his faith, and he rejoices in it. He gives himself to it. He willingly and resolvedly hazards his life and the general welfare upon this faith. Often also as he contemplates this 'most significant' the emotion of wonder or awe arises.

And what of the present, is it favourable or unfavourable to religion? Advancing knowledge apparently makes it increasingly difficult to hold to the older formulations. As they stand, these now seem a hindrance alike to the thoughtful and to the adventurous. An increasing number of the thoughtful simply cannot believe

what satisfied their fathers. If religion means acceptance of existing creeds, then for these religion will go. The adventurous are slightly different: they may stand among the thoughtful but in addition they wish the adventure. If they are to give themselves they wish to determine the enterprise. How many wish this adventure, no one knows; but the number is probably increasing, especially among the thoughtful young.

Shall we then encourage religious adventure? To many the idea is highly repugnant. But 'it is a condition and not a theory that confronts us'. Advancing knowledge and modern life conditions are, no matter what we wish or say, actually changing people's conceptions. Moreover, a changing world adds many new complexities. Serious problems confront. It is simply suicidal to say that old conceptions will suffice. They will not. They are actually going. Reconstruction of religious outlook is inevitable. It is inherent in a world developing anew. Such reconstruction has always gone on. It always will go on. Of course many take fright at the fact and resort to various 'defence mechanisms', to use a current term, and refuse to face the reality confronting. As well ask a child not to grow old, or a mechanic to refuse to work on motor cars, or a statesman to face new problems. Our world is a world developing anew and we are 'refusing to face reality' if we refuse to accept it as such and act accordingly.

As for adventure in religion, every religious hero worthy the name won his place by his daring to do new and difficult things. And they were 'despised and rejected' by the official religious leaders of their day. It may, I think, be claimed that adventure is the very heart of religious faith. The world needs it now as apparently it has never needed it before. But let no one mistake: it means a new conception of religion. We need adventurous souls capable of great daring.

As we have discussed the matter, the religious man—and in the degree that he is religious—accepts, with appropriate emotional response, for the control and integration of life the deepest and most inclusive system of meanings that he has been able to get. This system of meanings orders his outlook on life, on the one hand to

give him a programme for dealing with life and on the other to bring order and unity within and without—these two we need. Religion finds a way that promises best to bring these and stakes life and all upon it.

Does this then identify religion with a philosophy of life? The two are closely related, but the answer is No. One's philosophy is indeed one's deepest and most inclusive system of meanings, and in a certain sense one does live by one's philosophy. Otherwise it is not one's philosophy. But there is more to be said. The philosophy is the system, taken as it were by itself, to look at. One is religious or not according to the way in which one holds to this system or gives oneself to it. The element of resolved faith is the criterion. Any philosophy involves a wider integration than is 'proved' by the 'facts'. It is, we may say, a grand hypothesis. Religion is a manner and degree of accepting this hypothesis of life and its meanings.

The connection between philosophy and religion works also in the other direction. In my own opinion, believing in philosophy as I do, each one who has a religion should make it a part of his religious duty to make—and keep on making—a philosophy of life as adequate as he can. Otherwise he may give his life to an unworthy cause—as has often been done in the name of religion. A religion thus willing to study has promise in it. It—and it only—has so loved truth as to put search for truth at the heart of things. The trouble with all fundamentalists (including many not so styled) is that they are not willing to risk the truth they have in search for more and better truth. It seldom happens that a point of view that has long persisted is either all right or all wrong. By putting the old into the crucible along with the new we may well get both still newer and still truer.

A few words of more personal opinion or advice may close this talk. What I now say will pain some. I am sorry, but nevertheless it seems right to say it. We must expect as more people think and think better that, while in some respects we shall move towards common opinions, in many others there will be actual increase of diversity. A true man's religion is perhaps his closest personal possession; in a sense his very self written in terms of all else.

If we are to live together—and we must—we must more and more each respect the other as a person.

I beg you then to learn to allow other men to hold whatever religion to them seems honestly good. This does not mean that we are indifferent to truth. We shall seek the truth always, but always in kindly fashion, knowing that we may be mistaken, and respecting always other people in their opinions.

Still more specifically. Accept and believe, if you feel so impelled *after* consideration, whatever doctrines you will, regarding God, immortality, and the faith of your fathers, but as far as in you lies do not regard any specific position regarding any, as final or essential in your religion. If you do, you will probably find yourself in frequent fear for your specific

doctrine and less and less a seeker after truth, and more and more intolerant of other views. On the contrary, on these and all specific doctrines expect to hold them always subject to revision as new insight or new facts may develop. It seems to be true that an increasing number of serious and intelligently religious people do not use the 'God concept', do not 'pray', and do not even know what 'worship' means, are indifferent to immortality, and count the bible (of whatever kind) to have no more authority than its teachings inherently carry. These may be prophets of a new day.

Man, in the social aggregate, is incurably religious. We need, apparently as never before, adventurous souls to bring religious thought and practice abreast of the best otherwise known. Possibly this is the greatest need of our times.

Cover Competition

The present design on the cover of the *New Era* is the original work of one of Professor Cizek's art pupils in Vienna. The intention is to employ this same design for six months, and then to employ different designs, also the original work of children, making use probably of four designs during a year. The Editor would be very glad, therefore, if parents and teachers would submit suitable original designs in colour, from *children up to and including the age of sixteen*, accompanied by the name and address of the child. Designs submitted cannot be returned and will be held to be the property of the *New Era*.

A PRIZE OF ONE GUINEA WILL BE AWARDED
FOR EACH DESIGN CHOSEN

This Competition will close on 1st April 1931

The Editor hopes very much that designs will be submitted from all over the world, so that the original child art of different countries may be represented. Designs should be sent to the Editor, *New Era*, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1, and the envelope marked 'Cover Competition'.

Life at 'L'Ermitage'

The Decroly School, Brussels

AMÉLIE HAMAÏDE

Directrice of the Decroly School ; Professor of Pedagogy at L'Ecole du Service Sociale, Brussels ; Secretary to the Belgian Section of the New Education Fellowship ; author of 'La Méthode Decroly (The Decroly Class)'

ONE of the characteristics of the Decroly School consists in the choice of a centre of interest for the entire school for a whole year. Last year we selected the need of Defence from the four well-known 'needs' of Dr. Decroly's programme : the need of Food ; the need of Shelter ; the need of Defence ; the need of Work

The need of Defence, under the aspect of the

child and his organism, suggested a study of the senses, which in turn suggested the sense of hearing. At their monthly meeting the older children chose music as the centre of interest, and each group was asked to prepare a scene which in some way would be connected with music. There was much rejoicing and great enthusiasm ! Each group jealously guarded its secret, and on the day of the Assembly, a really



A Class at Work

[The Decroly School, Brussels]

fine programme was given.

The following is an extract from the school magazine, *Le Courier de l'Ecole* :

'The first number, given by the little ones, was a scene "Before the birth of music". The children were transformed into a rainbow group who, through the medium of saucepans, bottles, spoons and cups, gave a very amusing entertainment.

'Then we were transported into Africa by "Negro Music", and a band of blacks, armed with spears, executed some very original dances to the sound of the tom-tom, and presided over by witch doctors in hideous masks.

'Afterwards came a scene representing "Indian Music", done by group 8, who, wearing extremely successful costumes made by themselves, sang a real Indian song.

'Next, a leap across the Atlantic took us to Russia, where a little Cossack, dressed in red, with big boots and a fur cap, told us that the Russians delight in dancing to the accompaniment of singing, hand-clapping, and foot-stamping. A troop of Russian peasants gave a graceful and spirited representation of a "costaschok".

'A Breton song was heard, and the clatter of sabots, and several couples of Breton peasant boys and girls sang and danced, after which some of the little ones imitated in a charming round, the twittering of birds.

'With music presented to us in all its aspects, we were hardly surprised by the appearance of a carnival jazz band, consisting of a number of small gentlemen in dinner jackets and top hats, who played the most nerve-racking of modern music.

'An interlude, played by talented young artistes, offered a striking contrast.

'Soothed by the harmony of the "Danse Sicilienne", the scene changed to a street, and

a group of strolling musicians appeared, ready to run through their repertoire.

'A new song, "On the road to Louvier", was sung by a troop of gipsies and their lively and picturesque appearance delighted the audience.

'Then came *tableaux vivants*. An Egyptian scene depicted a most dignified Pharaoh's daughter listening to slaves playing on the harp and flute. The costumes, wigs and accessories to this scene were so admirably executed that one might almost have fancied oneself in ancient Egypt.

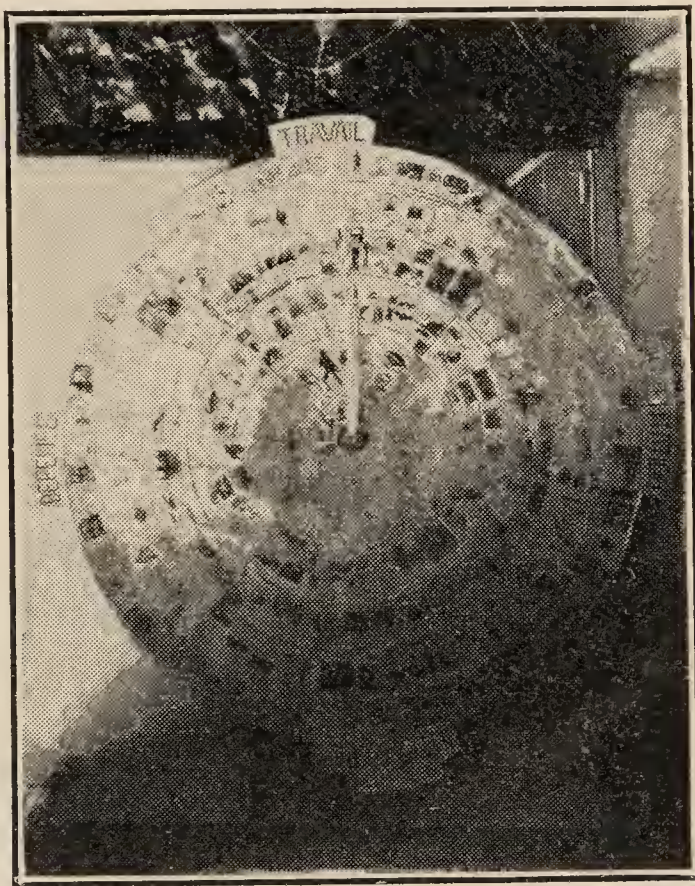
'A historical *tableau* transported us to the Middle Ages, where, in a castle hall, squires and dames hailed with joy the arrival of a band of troubadours who sang to the accompaniment of a hurdy-gurdy and recited tales of knight-hood and chivalry. This scene was very realistic and much appreciated by the audience.

'The final scene represented the history of the trumpet through the ages—the children having collected all the necessary information, and made the costumes. Instruments were kindly lent by the Brussels *Conservatoire*.

'First came a cave-man, who used a shell; then Ancient Egypt, Greece, Rome—the trumpet proclaiming the downfall of the old civilizations; then the herald of the Middle Ages, with a long trumpet; Roland with his ivory horn, whose echoes filled the valley of Ronceveau; a Frenchman of the 16th century with a hunting horn; and the horn which was used some thirty years ago by coachmen belonging to great houses. Last came the Boy Scouts' trumpet which sounds at their camps.

'Taking into account the limited means and time for preparation at the disposal of the performers, it is no exaggeration to say that the entertainment was highly enjoyable.'

Before this there had been no real theatre



Pictorial Record of Work
[The Decroly School, Brussels]

at l'Ermitage. This entertainment, however, was so successful that I decided to offer them a real theatre. This offer was accepted enthusiastically. We arranged that the carpenter should put up the actual building, but that all fittings and decorations should be made and done by the children themselves. We had at this time an art master who had never before taught in a progressive school, and he did not believe in allowing children too much initiative! We hoped to conquer him and induce him to fall into line. He was very enthusiastic over the idea of the theatre, and offered to make sketches for the decorations. I supposed that this was merely to stimulate the children's interest and never for a moment imagined that an art master in a progressive school would dream of making the models and imposing them upon the children.

The Entertainment Committee (the Senior Form, age 14-15), on the other hand, wished

to apply what they had learnt at school. Here, then, were two parties in opposition: the children, full of life and eagerness, ideas and energy, ready to do great things; and the master, wishing to superimpose his ideas and his tastes, wishing to be 'master'. Before long a violent conflict broke out between pupils and master. The children were disconsolate, sulky and discouraged, and many tears were shed in secret. After long discussions, when pupils and teacher could not agree, the children desiring simplicity and modernity, and the teacher wishing to decorate the theatre in the way that all theatres are decorated, the outraged children came to me one morning before school.

I had known nothing of the storms that had been surging round me for some days, and I must admit that, preoccupied as I was with the details of organization, I paid but scant attention to the children.



Creative Music

[*The Decroly School, Brussels*]

The President (Jean-Pierre, aged 14½, a conscientious boy who took his presidential duties very seriously) asked :

‘ Mademoiselle, whose is the theatre ? ’

‘ What a question ! ’ I exclaimed ; ‘ you know very well that I am giving it to you. ’

‘ Yes, but who has the right to arrange about the decorations ? ’

Very much surprised by this question, and not understanding the children’s anxiety, I replied somewhat absently :

‘ Since it is your theatre, I should think you decide everything in connection with decoration. ’

The sudden joy on every face made me realize that there was something wrong, and I inquired later on of the form master what was happening. He said :

‘ It’s a real drama ! The children have been in great distress during the past week, and I hardly know what to do about it. Personally, I consider that the children are right ; but how is one to explain to the art master that he is wrong ? ’

I realized that the children had not wanted to speak of this to me because they really appreciated the work of their teacher. They had suffered in silence.

I thought the whole matter over and decided to speak to the art master myself, and to show him what we really aim at in new education : leaving all the initiative to the children, and being discreet and intelligent guides.

That afternoon I talked with him at some length about the children and the work, and heard his opinion. I realized at once that he did not understand children, and that he thought it disastrous to leave the initiative to children who *knew nothing* ! ‘ One must show them how to draw, teach them the technique, and not allow their imagination and creative impulses to run wild ! ’

I tried to show him that our principal aim at school is to develop the initiative and personality of the children, and that we seemed to have achieved this purpose, since they begged to be allowed to create as they themselves wished.

Here was the whole problem of new education in a nutshell. And who was right ? The children of course ! I could not sacrifice them ; but on the other hand, I did not wish to tell them in so many words that they were right

and their teacher wrong. I wanted to be able to present things in such a way as to cause no possible reflection on him. ‘ Listen,’ I said, ‘ the situation is really quite simple. Come with me, and we’ll talk to the children. Everything will turn out all right. ’

It was time for a drawing lesson ; I went with him and laughingly broached the subject of the theatre :

‘ Well, how’s the theatre getting on ? ’

Consternation showed itself plainly on every face. I said :

‘ Listen, children : speak out frankly. What do you want ? Do you want to be quite free to decorate the theatre as you wish ? We’re willing to agree to this if you agree to take the full responsibility. We thought we might be able to help you—that was all. I suppose you would rather work on your own ? Very well, then ; but I’ll give you until to-morrow to think it over before deciding. It’s a heavy responsibility—remember that ! If you think you can manage it by yourselves and be ready in three weeks, go ahead. You can give me your answer to-morrow. ’

I went away with the professor, who was obviously displeased.

Next day I had (1) a letter from the professor, giving me notice, and saying, very nicely, that at his age he did not feel that he could adapt himself to this new way of treating children ; (2) an interview with the children who, proud and happy, came to say : ‘ We accept the entire responsibility—and you’ll see ! ’

Of course the children succeeded ! But what work, what efforts ! All their free time was devoted to the theatre. They felt their responsibility and wanted to prove that they could be depended on. ‘ Give us a little money, and leave the rest to us. ’

The results were marvellous. Instead of paintings, the walls were covered with a kind of sackcloth, simple and in perfect taste. The scenery was modern in design, and most artistic.

‘ I’ve rarely had such an impression of art at a theatre,’ said one of the mothers to me, after the performance.

The children were so stimulated by their success, that they decided to give another entertainment (three plays) at the end of the school year. This could not have been bettered, and they had done everything themselves.

Other Methods of Parent Education

MAY PARDEE YOUTZ

*Head of the Child Study and Parent Education Division, Iowa Child Welfare Research Station,
University of Washington, Seattle, U.S.A.*

JUST as the progressive educator to-day is approaching the problem of education from the point of view that childhood is not a preparation for a life to be lived later but is significant now, so the persons responsible for parent education realize that parents are confronted with situations and problems which must be met and solved daily; granting this assumption, it is immediately apparent that that one pre-requisite for learning, namely interest, is present.

There are many types of parent education in the United States in addition to the study discussion method followed by groups. Perhaps the largest number of parents is being reached through the various types of *clinics*, though no figures are available.

Health Clinics: These were originally established for the care of the infant and the expectant mother, but later included the pre-school child; definite recommendations are given to the parents, usually the mother, as to the child's physical needs. As the mother needs not only information about the child's physical needs but guidance in the psychological factors involved, the clinics are including on their staff persons trained in handling behaviour problems of children: this step is in keeping with the modern emphasis on the study of the whole child.

One outstanding piece of parent education is the work of the Sheppard-Towner Clinics, established under the Sheppard-Towner Act, 'which provided federal aid to states desiring to co-operate with the federal government in promoting the welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy. The original act authorized appropriations for five years.'

This was amended in 1924 to include Hawaii; forty-five States and the territory of Hawaii are now co-operating.

The work undertaken has been uniformly educational. It has been carried on through individual instruction of parents at conferences conducted by physicians and nurses, through home visits by public health nurses, and

demonstrations in the home in infant and maternal care. A second method has been group instruction through lectures, motion pictures, and exhibits; classes in infant care and prenatal care for mothers, girls, and teachers; instruction of midwives; graduate courses in maternity and infancy work for nurses; and graduate courses in pediatrics and obstetrics for physicians. A third means has been dissemination of literature prepared by the States or by the Children's Bureau on phases of maternal care, infant care and hygiene, child care and management, and other features of the work.

Nutrition clinics held in various centres, most often in connection with research centres in universities or as part of the teaching programme in a university. These vary from the health clinics only in so far as mothers with feeding problems are encouraged to bring their children. Feeding problems are taken up and food formulæ discussed. In some educational institutions (as at the University of Washington), the clinic is used as a demonstration laboratory for students in the classes in nutrition in the Department of Home Economics.

Mental Hygiene Clinic: The parent, dependent as he is on various specialists for the diagnosis of difficulties in the physical realm and in the field of behaviour problems, has the opportunity and responsibility of seeing his child as a whole personality. The various mental hygiene clinics, or child guidance clinics as they are sometimes called, recognize this, and through direct contact with the parent, through the psychiatric social worker and the visiting teacher give the parent opportunity to assume responsibility enlightened by the findings of the specialists.

The *Summer Round-Up* of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers: This functions in cities and also in many smaller communities and rural localities where there is no other clinical service. The procedure is for the local unit of the parent-teacher association

to enlist the co-operation of physicians, and then to persuade all mothers of children who will enter school for the first time in the autumn, to bring them to a clinic for a complete physical examination. These clinics are held in the spring and each mother is urged to see to it that diseased conditions are corrected, and that children are brought up to weight by the time they enter school.

The *second type* of parent education is in co-operation with nursery schools and pre-schools; a few of the many variations in procedure combine the features of the day nursery and nursery school; in these the parents see the teachers when they bring the children in the morning and also are encouraged to come to the teachers to discuss problems. In other nursery schools, in addition, mothers take turns in assisting in the nursery school; then, in all nursery schools, parents are asked to keep home records of food taken, sleep and adjustment to situations. In some instances a home visitor holds conferences with the parents.

Consultation Service: This type of parent education is often found, two outstanding organizations being the Child Study Association of America (New York City), and the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit.

The work of the consultation centre at the Merrill-Palmer School is as follows:—(1) Preliminary interview with the director who determines need; (2) Determination of facts by experts; (3) Outline of course of procedure for parents following complete diagnosis; (4) Supervision and reports at definite intervals; (5) Supplemental biographies in some cases.*

The work of the *Visiting Teacher* is a recent development. Its bearing on parent education is evident from the fact that it is an attempt to help the child adjust to his world, and this includes a study of home conditions as well as school situations.

Lectures on child development and on parent-child relationships constitute another form of parent education; these are becoming increasingly in demand and psychologists, sociologists, nutrition workers with children, teachers, physicians, all co-operate in giving lectures.

Lectures over the radio are another form;

* *Sixth Annual Report*, Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, Michigan.

occasionally an organization will answer parents' questions during one of these radio programmes.

Conferences on Child Development and Parent Education are held; to these come parents, teachers, social workers and all persons interested in child life. Lectures and round-table discussions make up the programmes. The various phases of child life—physical, mental, emotional, spiritual—are discussed; parents take part in the round-table discussions, which are usually presided over by a specialist in a particular field.

A number of universities are offering *Correspondence Courses* in parent education; in one State (Minnesota) over two thousand persons registered for the course in one year.

Syndicated articles in the daily papers undoubtedly reach many parents who are not reached in any other way; the better monthly magazines publish many articles of interest to parents.

The *Journals*, both technical and semi-technical, are more and more reaching the educated person with articles on research in child life. A number of the so-called home magazines include a department relating especially to parents' problems; parents may ask questions which are referred to the right quarter for answer.

In closing I wish to quote Dr. E.C. Lindeman:

'Parent education is a significant movement for our time, not merely, as so many assume, because it represents an organized effort to furnish parents with certain skills, devices and techniques designed to make child rearing a more technical, and consequently, a more successful enterprise; its real importance lies in its function as an instrument for adjusting the whole of family life to the whole of modern culture.' 'True education consists in the use of knowledge in experience. Thus, it becomes exceedingly important to view the adjustment of the family to the modern world as continued learning, re-education of adults in terms of their parental and family functions. If this continuing adjustment is seen as a method of learning and a method of utilizing knowledge, the results will become manifest in all spheres of living. The educated parent will be also the adjusted adult, the adult living at home in the modern world, fruitfully, generatively, progressively.' **

** *Parent Education as Adjustment to the Modern World* from Child Study, Vol. 7. No. 8, by E. C. Lindeman, Professor of Social Philosophy, New York School of Social Work; Consultant, National Council of Parent Education.

First Steps to Freedom

MARJORIE LORD

Member of the Staff of Regal Road (State) School, Toronto

THIS record of early days in an experiment in self-education is offered in the hope that it may be of use to others embarking on a career of self-help.

Into our experiment were drawn two classrooms, two teachers, two classes of the same standard, each containing forty boys and girls of widely diverging abilities, and of ages ranging from eleven to fifteen.

The curriculum was halved by the two teachers to their mutual satisfaction, one taking geography, arithmetic, grammar, nature study, hygiene for both classes, the other history, literature, composition, music, art, for both. The consequent halving of the preparation of lessons, as a practical problem in classroom procedure, has proved abundantly to compensate for the doubling of the numbers of children under one's charge. The classes moved about, spending a half day in each room, the teachers remaining stationary. Thus, each teacher could, in his own domain, establish the atmosphere and environment which seemed to him essential, could adopt or discard experimental work independently of the policy of the other room, had not to affect a Utopian identity of aim or spirit with his fellow-teacher, was, in short, granted just that freedom in his work which we believe is good for children in theirs.

First steps in the history room were as follows :

Since education must be a wrestling of the individual with his own spirit, self and individual education periods were planned wherein the child might be free of his fellows, and especially of adults, with their ineradicable tendency to overdirect his life. Lest the unsocial might be thereby developed, individual work and spiritual solitude alternated with community life in the classroom. In the self-education periods, which occurred in the first hour of every morning and afternoon, history, literature and composition, in close correlation,

were worked by assignment. The later community periods were devoted to singing, gramophone work, drill and folk dancing, dramatic work, lantern lectures, a debating club, conferences.

The assignments for the self-education periods covered a two-year English history course. Each assignment became the pivot of interest in that room for that month. Thus, with the Industrial Revolution, literature included Hood's *Song of the Shirt*, Browning's *Cry of the Children* ; and the Club offered as debate : ' Resolved, that machinery has been a blessing to the working man '. When the Napoleonic Wars were studied, Tchaikovsky's *1812* was analysed by means of gramophone record. When a notable war occurred in history, a peace theme in literature and composition offset the traditional glory of war by the greater sanity of peace. Thus, Marlborough's wars carried Southey's poem, *After Blenheim*, and the following composition :

' In Southey's poem, Kaspar talks proudly to his grandchildren, Wilhelmine and Peterkin, of Marlborough's battle. Yet Kaspar does not know why the war was fought, nor what good came of it. Leaving their grandfather at the cottage door in the sun with his memories, those children stroll away together to puzzle it out. (Here the beginning of a suitable dialogue is given.) Continue this dialogue in any way you please.'

Along such lines the assignment may be made to leap to life, to become, in truth, a self-educating instrument rather than an accessory to the classroom lesson.

Then to the teacher will come opportunity, *first*, to create that buoyancy which shall carry the child dauntlessly and alone along an unknown path, and *second*, to exercise the faith which knows that, through his own high failures and low successes, his own trials and errors, the child will mount most truly to the heights of his life.

Questions from Parents and Teachers

Parents and teachers are sometimes faced with situations with which they feel they cannot adequately deal. You are invited to send such 'posers' to us, and when necessary we shall seek the advice of men and women whose work is the study of young children and adolescents. We ask that you send 1s. to cover cost of clerical work involved. Questions sent in by the middle of one month will be answered, if possible, by the beginning of the month following, and those of general interest will be published in the "New Era".

I have tried to encourage my little boy to eat by following the advice given in the July 'New Era,' but it does not seem to fit the case. Can you suggest anything else? He seems as if he took no interest in meal times.

You might try to arouse his interest by letting him do as much as possible for himself. Let him go by himself to wash his hands before a meal. Let him help to lay the cloth, help in serving up his meals, and help himself at table. Let him pour out his own drinking water. Don't give him too much advice as to how he ought to eat, or when to drink water at meals. Don't 'fuss' him, and get others to leave him alone; don't persuade or threaten or bribe. Praise every sign of improvement to strengthen his self-confidence; sometimes praise prematurely. Don't notice every spot he makes on the cloth; if he upsets a glass or a cup, or breaks a plate, be lenient in your criticism. Don't punish by limiting him in his food; no child was ever the worse for an uneaten dinner. Don't throw maxims at his head, or ask him to notice how nicely some other child is taking his food—it only makes him dislike the other child, it does not make him like his food. Don't mention his small appetite to others in his presence. Teach him to think of others at meal times, and to pass the dishes on as quickly as possible. Show him that you are not upset if he does not happen to eat. Try saying to him: 'It doesn't matter; you really don't need to eat.' You will find, probably, that he will eat.

Dr. ALICE FRIEDMANN

(Co-Director, Home for Children and Adolescents, Vienna)

My daughter, aged 10, much prefers to play by herself, and never mixes with her school-fellows. Does it matter?

A situation like this should certainly be investigated. At the age of 10 a girl's chief interest should be in children of her own age. Where this is not the case something abnormal has happened.

In similar cases it has often been found due to one of the following reasons:—(1) The child has come to feel that she is superior to her school-fellows and is so full of her own importance that she cannot bring herself to face the rough and tumble of friendships. This superiority might have many different origins, such as the family situation, the native endowment of the child or excessive 'spoiling'. (2) The child may shrink from contacts with other children through some secret feeling of shame. In this case it is her feeling of inferiority which keeps her apart.

When once the cause has been discovered steps can be taken to effect a remedy.

My boy of 12 seems sharp enough, but takes no interest in lessons and always comes out near the bottom of his class. Can anything be done?

The first thing to do is to have the boy tested for general intelligence by a psychologist. If you do that you will then know what his native ability is and how much you may expect from him. You may find that he is super-normal, then, in all probability, he is failing in his work because it is too easy, and he will not be bothered with it in consequence. In that case it will be better to put him in a higher form and expect more from him. If, however, he is below normal he will need extra encouragement and should be given opportunities to excel at something other than lessons. In any case it is important to arouse his ambition and to help him to put forth effort. A change of school may be advisable.

My child of 11 is crazy to be a cinema star and she thinks of nothing else. This results in failure at school. Can you suggest a line of treatment?

I know one girl who was cured by sending her to a cinema studio to witness the tedious procedure in the production of a film, and another who cooled off considerably when she was given some serious acting to do herself. What is needed is an insight into the drudgery associated with all stage work and it is worth while to take some trouble to give it to her.

E. MILDRED NEVILL

(Psychologist, Frensham Heights School; Psychology Lecturer, Clapham Training College)

It might interest parents and teachers to know that in every tin of Cadbury's Cocoa there are coupons for certain numbers of which the firm will supply children's crockery and cutlery and other things suitable for children's rooms.



From the list of Federating Members of the New Education Fellowship, published in the September issue of the *New Era*, were inadvertently omitted the International Federation of Home and School, Philadelphia, Pa., and the National League of Teachers' Association, Texas, U.S.A.

International Notes

An Education Reform Conference, held in Tallinn from 12th - 26th August, was attended mainly by Esthonian teachers, although there were also representatives from Finland, Latvia and Lithuania. The addresses were delivered in Esthonian, though, at times, Russian or German was the medium. The only English speaker was Mr. A. J. Lynch, hon. secretary of the English Section of the New Education Fellowship, who received a very warm welcome.

Altogether, 1,500 teachers attended the Conference which had the full support of the Ministry of Education. Compared with the population of Esthonia, this was a remarkable attendance. The organization of the Conference left nothing to be desired. There was an excellent exhibition of work from the schools.

The subjects discussed included the Decroly, Dalton and Project methods; 'collective' teaching; school journeys; mental and scholastic tests; together with accounts of American, Russian and German schools.

There are no examinations at any stage of the Esthonian system, and therefore there is no undue pressure in the schools. In view of the enthusiasm and interest displayed throughout the Conference, it is not surprising to learn that an Esthonian Group of the New Education Fellowship may be formed shortly. We wish it every success.

Dr. Paul Monroe, Director of the International Institute, Columbia University, in an article to the *Pennsylvania School Journal* recently, stated that he had been impressed by the fact that every people works out some feature of the educational process peculiar to itself, yet possessing general value. Three of the examples he cited were Bulgaria, Turkey and Spain. In Bulgaria a young teacher, graduating from a normal school, is given employment for one year by a community, who, if satisfied, may appoint the teacher permanently for a life tenure with a retirement allowance. Upon entering the school permanently, the teacher is assigned a group of children for which he assumes responsibility throughout the elementary school period, looking after their health, morals, social contacts and welfare, and accompanying them during the summer months during their travels. This summer vacation travel for familiarizing school children with different parts of their country is a significant educational custom common to the countries of Eastern Europe. In Turkey each teacher requires some member of the class to keep in a book a full record of the activities of a given day, including plans of each lesson, an account and the grading of the participating pupils, and the common interests and activities of the class. Each member of the class is assigned this duty in turn. Thus the inspector or official or visitor has a complete record of the activities of the class, an individual record of each pupil in writing, and language and so on, and a picture of the ability of the teacher. In Spain, some schools make

all their textbooks in this manner, each class profiting by the efforts of the preceding class.

The National Union of Students of the University Colleges of England and Wales are endeavouring to raise £30,000 for the purchase and endowment of the London Headquarters, these to act as a national and Imperial centre, and to provide hospitality for Dominion and foreign students visiting England. The international student movement has 800,000 members, 28,000 of whom are drawn from the universities and university colleges of England and Wales. This movement is international in the best sense of the term, the English National Union being federated with the National Unions of three British Dominions and thirty-seven other countries, and to the International Confederation of Students, whose headquarters are in Brussels.

The Eighteenth Summer School of the Froebel Society was held in London in August, and centred round the subject of Projects. The organizers had gathered together a band of enthusiasts who had been working on Froebel-cum-Dewey-cum-Kilpatrick lines, to give an account of their actual experiments. There were teachers from preparatory departments of High Schools, with moderate-sized classes and a reasonable amount of space, and teachers with classes of fifty, using all available (and unavailable) space. One teacher, for instance, had given up all shelves but one, believing it was better to go to fetch everything from the storeroom than to hamper the children.

One most important result is that no one need say: 'It cannot be done with large classes', for Projects are being done where the head teachers are sympathetic and encouraging; and school inspectors are inspiring the movement 'to discover the place for formal teaching'. 'Trust the children' was preached by all; they see the way out where the adult is at a loss.

Projects described were: Shipping; A Market; Plays Made and Acted; School Fair; The Building of Chelsea; From Harvest Home to Bread and Butter; Pageant of the Peak; Shakespearean Theatre—named by the children, who refused to have a mere fairy-tale and insisted on acting 'something' by Shakespeare; all these showed happy, busy, kindly children moving on, by slow degrees, to the place of saints and sages.

During August a Congress of representatives from forty-two nations met at Liège under the auspices of the Belgian Society, L'Education Familiale. The Congress was very well attended, and the presence of many men of position, fathers of families and responsible citizens, was a marked feature. The sections met separately daily, and together for a final session, discussing means of propaganda, of character

training, of training for parenthood, and cognate subjects. A full translation of the resolutions passed will be available shortly. An extraordinarily comprehensive list of societies in all countries that are working for 'family education' has been compiled by the Abbé Froidure of Le Collège Cardinal-Mercier, and will be available for reference.

The most marked feature of the assembly was the breadth of its vision. With many 'religieux' as members, to whom 'faith' is the basis of all education, it was in no sense narrow or sectarian. In these days when education for parenthood has often seemed synonymous with sex education, it was refreshing to find its wider spiritual, mental and moral sides adequately dwelt upon.

The practical side was not forgotten. The delegates were shown the admirable training centre for domestic education at Laaken outside Brussels, and there representatives of the different countries had the honour of being presented to His Majesty the King of the Belgians.

The Paul de Rosay 'American-Normandy Camp' at Etretat, France, was held as usual in August. This camp offers the dual benefits of a sojourn abroad and an American type of summer camp, and the venture now includes a camp for girls as well as boys, with junior and senior divisions in each group. The activities included sports; care of pets; hikes; bicycle rides (a bicycle is provided for each camper); a daily swim, and picnics. 'Stunt' evenings, dramatics, and handicrafts provided creative outlets. At meal times French only was spoken, and the fact that all the counsellors and many of the children spoke French fluently, stimulated progress in this language. The campers were housed in the 17th century farm building, adapted to the needs of the group, and hence were in an old-world atmosphere within as well as without the camp. Short daily excursions, longer weekly ones, and twice in the season migrations of several days, extended considerably the children's knowledge of their environment. There was a fine spirit of co-operation and good-fellowship between groups and counsellors and children, and a zest for life that impressed the casual visitor.

The Congress of the German Board of Education and Instruction will be held in Wiesbaden on the 6th and the 7th of October, under the Presidency of Dr. Georg Kerschensteiner, Munich. The theme of the Congress will be: 'The Problems and Limitation of State Activity in Present-day Education', and the aim is to arrive at a clear understanding of the difficult problems of education, politics and world-philosophy that bear upon State school law. Information may be obtained from Die Geschäftsstelle des Deutschen Ausschusses für Erziehung und Unterricht, Berlin, N.W.6, Schiffbauerdamm 5. iv.

It is interesting to note that though the general belief is that Gaelic as a language is fast dying out, it is still being studied by 10,000 pupils in over 300 schools in Scotland.

One of the resolutions passed at the Conference of the South African Teachers' Association this summer was: that after ten years' service a teacher be entitled to three months' furlough on pay; after fifteen years' service, to three months on full and three months on half pay; after twenty years' service, to six months on full pay. And another: that the Union Government be approached with a view to the early establishment of a Union Department of Educational Psychology to compile and standardize intelligence, achievement and aptitude tests for South African children to facilitate their better classification in school, improvements in the syllabus, and the introduction of some form of educational and vocational guidance into schools. Another resolution passed was that overseas teachers of exchange be allowed to teach in more than one centre during their stay in South Africa.

We learn from the English Board of Education's pamphlet, No. 81, *Recent Educational Developments in Sweden*, that the main trend of the present reorganization in Swedish education is not only to connect up primary with secondary education, but to make of the primary a basis upon which to erect a system of secondary schools that will provide a 'liberal education for boys and girls under equal conditions whatever their future occupations in life might be'. It is anticipated that most of the private schools will disappear, and the rest be modified, and that by 1935 there will be 135 as against the present seventy-seven State schools. More than half of the present municipal schools will become State secondary schools for boys and girls. After six years in the primary school children will go on to the secondary school at the age of thirteen, the lower department of the higher schools being linked up with the sixth primary class, and in some cases, with the fourth primary class. There is also valuable and interesting material on the examination system in Sweden. Pamphlets may be obtained from H.M. Stationery Office, Kingsway, London, W.C.2.

M. R. Jacquillard, Chef du Service de Police and Pénitenciaire of the Canton of Vaud, Lausanne, contributes an interesting article to the July-August issue of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enfant* on the subject of 'The Cinema and the Delinquent Child', giving the results of an inquiry into this subject in the Canton among 150 young delinquents under twenty years of age. Thirty per cent of these had never been to a cinema, and the worst offenders were among this group; seventy per cent had been often or very often. Six per cent had attended films of an inferior or immoral type. One-third of the number of children charged with theft had stolen in order to go to a cinema or some other form of entertainment, but the cinema was never the sole motive. In only one case were the methods employed suggested by a film. Environment, it was found, had obviously played a larger part than the influence of the cinema in the cases of those who had seen bad films. The percent-

age of delinquency due to cinemas was smaller among the girls than among the boys—delinquency among girls is very slight in the Canton in any case. It is urged that official pressure be brought on cinema managers to reduce any dangers the cinema may offer. In the Canton there are forty-three cinemas for a population of some 350,000 persons.



President Hoover last year appointed a committee representative of the important educational associations in the United States to investigate and present recommendations as to policies which should be pursued by the federal government with respect to education. This investigation was begun last November under the direction of Dr. Henry Suzzallo, and numerous conferences have been held, the study being limited to those activities of the federal government that have education as their main interest. There are five principal classes :—(1) Training employees of the government to insure better functioning of the government itself, either in special schools such as the mili-

tary and naval academies or otherwise ; (2) Conducting research and disseminating knowledge for the general welfare ; (3) Assuring educational opportunities for residents of political dependencies, including the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Alaska, Philippines, etc ; (4) Appropriate and effective training of native peoples, wards of the federal government, i.e. Indians, Esquimaux, Aleuts ; (5) Co-operating with the States in the conduct of local education. The most complex was Class 5, where the crux of the problem lies in determining proper relationships between government and people. The committee kept constantly in mind the charge of the Secretary of the Interior, the Hon. Ray Lyman Wilbur, that they should not ' confuse the essentials of education with the political mechanisms that may be worked out to bring them about '. This summer at a meeting at Washington, Dr. Suzzallo stated the ten fundamental principles arrived at by the committee, and seven definite proposals for federal action that would be consistent with these principles, were drafted.

(*International Notes continued on page 104*)

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The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 132

SCHATTEN ÜBER DIE SCHULE

VOCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND CHARACTER ANALYSIS

ARITHMETIC APPARATUS: DECIBANK AND MULTABLE

MENTAL HYGIENE AND SOCIAL WORK

Books Received

Autumn Term, 1930

BROADCASTS TO SCHOOLS : *Programme of Readings, Dialogues and Talks for all kinds of schools ; English Speech*, by A. Lloyd James ; *Children of Other Days*, by Rhoda Power ; *Music Lessons*, by Sir Walford Davies ; *Rural Science : Life in the Soil*, by D. Ward Cutler, M.A. ; and *The School Garden*, by C. E. Hudson, N.D.H., F.R.H.S. ; *Your Body Every Day*, by Professor Winifred Cullis, C.B.E. ; *Peoples and Lands of the British Empire*, planned by James Fairgrieve and Ernest Young ; *Early Stages in French*, by E. M. Stepan, assisted by Mlle H. Coustenoble. *The Mind of a Child*, by Cyril Burt ; *Standing Room Only*, a study in population, by Professor A. M. Carr-Saunders ; *Africa, the Dark Continent*, by Major Walter Elliot, M.P.

A SCIENTIFIC BASIS FOR HEALTH INSTRUCTION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Laura Cairns. University of California Press, Berkeley, Cal., U.S.A. \$1.25.

MODERN MASTERS OF ETCHING, No. 25 : ROBERT AUSTIN, R.E. Introduction by Malcolm C. Salaman. The Studio, Ltd., 44 Leicester Square, London, W.C.2. William Edwin Rudge, 475 Fifth Avenue, New York City. A fine series of twelve large reproductions of etchings from proofs in the possession of the artist.

MASTER DRAUGHTSMEN, No. 1 : MICHELANGELO. With Introduction and explanatory Notes by A. E. Popham, of the British Museum. The Studio, Ltd., and William E. Rudge (see Modern Masters of Etching, above). A magnificent series of twelve large reproductions of drawings.

LECTURES AND CLASSES FOR TEACHERS. Handbook for the Session, 1930-31. London County Council, The County Hall, Westminster Bridge, S.E.1.

ROSES AND KIPPERS : *The Epic of a Council School*. W. Margrie. Watts & Co., Johnson's Court, Fleet Street, London, E.C.4. 7s. 6d. A work of 'decorated reality—largely autobiographical'.

THE TRACKS OF OUR FOREFATHERS : *A Story of England (A.D. 450-1450)*. A. F. C. Bourdillon, M.A., F.R.Hist.S. Methuens, Essex Street, London, W.C.2. 'This book is written in the hope that by its help some children may learn their school history and also the magic of oak and ash and thorn.'

DIE GESTALTENDE HAND. Die Vereinigung Deutscher Werklehrer E.D., Berlin N.31, Voltastrasse 31. RM.10 per annum. A monthly magazine devoted to creative handwork.

PRACTICAL COMMUNITY. F. and G. Sandeman. With a Preface by Patrick Geddes. The Woodcraft Way Series, No. 16. The Order of Woodcraft Chivalry, Godshill, Salisbury, England. 1s.

THE MEASUREMENT OF MANUAL DEXTERITIES. F. M. Earle, M.Ed., B.Sc., assisted by F. Gaze, Ph.D., and other members of the Institute's staff. The National Institute of Industrial Psychology, Aldwych House, London, W.C.2. 5s.

THIS ENGLAND, and Other Things of Beauty. F. J. Gould. C. A. Watts & Co., Ltd., 5 & 6 Johnson's Court, Fleet Street, London, E.C.4. 5s.

CHILDREN AND THE STRESS OF LIFE. Helen Webb, M.B. Parents' National Educational Union, 26 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1. 3s. 6d.

THE LEAGUE FROM YEAR TO YEAR (1928-1929). Information Section, League of Nations, Geneva. 1s.

A MANUAL OF TEMPERA PAINTING. Maxwell Armfield. With an Introduction by Sir Charles Holmes. George Allen & Unwin, 40 Museum Street, London, W.C.1. 6s.

THIRTY YEARS OF BRITISH ART. Special Autumn Number of the Studio. Sir Joseph Duveen. The Studio, Ltd., 44 Leicester Square, London, W.C.2. 7s. 6d.



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Book Reviews

The American Road to Culture. By George S. Counts. *The John Day Co., New York.* \$2.50.

This book is an attempt, says Dr. Counts in his Preface, 'at a broad social and theoretical interpretation of American education', and of necessity he does no more than glance at all the different phases and stages embraced by so ambitious an aim. Dr. Counts has spent a good deal of time out of his own country, having specially investigated education in the Philippines and (on two occasions) in Russia. As an Associate Director of the International Institute of Teachers College, he has come into contact with many educators from other countries. Thus he has been able to see American social and educational practice, to a certain extent, from a distance. Dr. Counts makes his attempt through the examination of the educational institutions evolved by the United States, abstracting the principles from the practice. The controlling ideas in American education, he says, are ten: faith in education; governmental responsibility; local initiative; individual success; democratic tradition; national solidarity; social conformity; mechanical efficiency; practical utility. These principles form the headings of his chapters, and are rounded off by a further chapter which deals with the philosophic uncertainty characterizing American—and not only American—education to-day.

Vocational Psychology and Character Analysis. By H. L. Hollingworth. *D. Appleton & Co., Bedford Street, London, W.C.2.* \$3.00.

If this be the only way to fathom our vocational needs, they are likely to remain for ever a mystery. For Professor Hollingworth deals almost entirely with averages and ignores the individual for whom alone life has purpose and education is designed. Such averages may be useful enough to the school administrator and the employer of labour. For both can still afford to tabulate human beings as numbers and leave their individuality to those that love them. But they are of little help to the parent or teacher faced with the problem of what to do about John and his career. Perhaps some day those who pursue this branch of psychology will realise how dependent it is for scientific results upon a deeper science of the mind. But that time is not yet, and Professor Hollingworth can write 400 pages on character analysis without once mentioning the effect of unconscious tendencies upon character, and can even recommend his book to teachers while admitting that the possibilities of individual development have up to now evaded the methods of his analysis. And yet these possibilities are the child's future and must always be the teacher's chief preoccupation. It is indeed not enough to mention 'the overwhelming importance of incentive, motive, attitude and purpose'. Without a study of these character factors, voca-

tional analysis is vain; and of this study, already begun and yielding fruitful results, Professor Hollingworth tells us nothing.

Decibank and Multable. *Apparatus for Teaching Arithmetic by Concrete Means.* R. M. Williamson. *Marshall Williamson & Co., Burley, Hampshire, England.* Various Prices.

It would seem that many of the difficulties usually met with by beginners in arithmetic might be satisfactorily and happily overcome by the use of this ingenious device. The Decibank, which is a modification of the abacus, owes its origin to a particular child's inability to understand the positional value attached to any digit in a number, and has therefore been designed to meet a need which most junior teachers will have discovered in their children. The process of addition and subtraction can be clearly illustrated by the teacher and performed individually by the children, and the inclusion of decimal fractions enables this often troublesome part of the subject to be masked at the same time and with as little difficulty, for the child sees them in exactly the same relation to one another and to the unit as the unit bears to the ten and its multiples.

The Multable, an equally attractive piece of apparatus, based on the Table of Pythagoras, is designed to assist the mastery of the multiplication tables. It can be used in a variety of ways and, as an educational game, should prove both fascinating and instructive. Both pieces of apparatus are strongly made, and several different priced models of each provide a selection suitable for all types of schools.

Mental Hygiene and Social Work. By Porter R. Lee and Marion E. Kenworthy. *The Commonwealth Fund Division of Publications, New York City.* \$1.50.

A descriptive interpretation of the work of the Bureau of Children's Guidance as a centre for the psychiatric study of children presenting behaviour difficulties, and for the training of students as psychiatric social workers. Part I contains a concrete description of problems met with and methods used in child guidance, and Part II discusses the education of psychiatric social workers.

The Massachusetts Audubon Society for the Protection of Wild Birds and Mammals (66 Newbury Street, Boston, Mass.) has issued a series of four charts representing in colour 95 different American birds. They show the birds in life size and colours, and are a practical help in nature study. They are lithographed and mounted on cloth, 27 × 42 inches, price \$2.50 each.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

THE nursery school has come to stay. As our knowledge of the importance of the early years of a child's life increases, so do the possibilities inherent in this movement widen and extend. We are proud of the nursery school movement and of its inception in England, due to those gallant pioneers, Miss Rachel and Miss Margaret McMillan.

The movement in England was begun in response to a social need, to care for the children of mothers who had to go out to work, but it has gradually grown far beyond this, and is now looked upon as a necessary part of modern education. That it should be so is obvious. In these days, fewer and fewer people can afford their own nursery—flats and small houses make it almost impossible to set apart one special room for the small children; yet it is absolutely essential that they should have a place of their own. Again, too often, the family consists of an only child; yet there is nothing a child needs more than companions of his own age. It is also very difficult for a busy mother to give sufficient time to a child to allow him to become independent. It is far easier to button up a child's clothes than to teach him to button them up himself and to wait while he fumbles with them: far easier to fold up a child's clothes than to wait for him to do so himself. And yet the formation of these early habits of helping himself may have a far-reaching influence in later life.

Modern psychology is showing the tremendous importance of early social adjustments. The small people who have attended a nursery school are more controlled, more independent, better adjusted socially, than the majority of children who have not attended such schools.

Here they are in charge of specially trained persons, their character traits are carefully observed, and ample opportunities are afforded for the right kind of physical, emotional, and mental self-expression. Nursery school training should not in any sense be regarded as taking the place of home training, but rather as complementary to it. There should always be very close co-operation between parents and teacher. In many cases mothers have been astounded to find how differently their children have responded in school from the way in which they respond at home. Some nursery schools give opportunity for the parents to observe the children without the children knowing their parents are there. Too often the child who behaves quite well when mother is absent, behaves badly when mother appears. The wise parent is neither discouraged nor offended by this, but is willing to take hints as to the treatment of her child. Many nursery schools in America, and a few in England, have active parents' associations, at which all kinds of questions are discussed. Courses on current affairs, modern education and so forth, are held, and the parents are invited to bring their problems. In the syllabus of one English nursery school, the problems for consideration include food, shelter and clothing; rent, rates and taxes; education; crime; work; leisure; revolution and evolution; mass production; the value of money; social responsibility.

The formation of the Nursery School Association of Great Britain (32 Bloomsbury Square, London, W.C.1) six years ago, is furthering the interest of the whole movement. This association is largely due to the efforts of Miss Margaret McMillan, Miss Lillian de Lissa

and Miss Grace Owen. The yearly membership fee is 5s. The main object is to make more widely known the work already achieved by nursery schools and their claim to public support. The association helps to form and focus public opinion on all matters relating to the movement; draws particular attention to the need for the adequate staffing of nursery schools by trained people as an essential for the success of the scheme; and stresses the desirability of considering the possibilities of nursery school open-air buildings in relation to the reorganization of schools consequent on the raising of the school-leaving age. In this connection it is interesting to note that England is the only country where there are open-air nursery schools.

There are still many points at issue. Some teachers prefer to see a nursery school attached to the infant school, while nursery teachers are emphatic that the nursery school should be housed in a small building, apart from the other school buildings. In any case, it is most essential to secure continuity of records. From the child welfare centres on, a child's medical, mental, and character records should be continuous until he leaves school at fourteen or sixteen.

Much is being done in America to link up the nursery school and the kindergarten movements, so that a child may be seen as a whole for the first nine or twelve years of his life. This sound principle is laid down on the lines of modern psychology. For the nursery school should not be regarded as a place in which a child should begin to read, to write, or to do arithmetic—though there is no reason why he should not, if he wishes, begin to pick out letters. There should be no pressure. This is the period in which a child adjusts himself to his world, in which he must learn to handle material, have freedom to explore his universe, the period in which he is gathering and learning to use his 'tools'. Story telling, nature study, drawing, painting, games, formation of physical and social habits, should be the predominant things.

It is interesting to read Miss Winifred Harley's comparison of the nursery schools of England and America (page 148) and Mr. A. J. Lynch's Survey (page 156). As far as apparatus goes, America is ahead of Great Britain. Note in one of the Winnetka pictures the large size

of the bricks; these can build a house in which a child can actually play (page 141). Another very interesting piece of apparatus which has just begun to find its way over to England is the Jungle Gym (page 150). Small children climb on (and in) it like monkeys, developing their muscles in a perfectly natural way, and having every opportunity for climbing, without any danger.

The question of diet in nursery schools strikes us as being better attended to in America than in Great Britain, where children are apt to be given too much starch and not enough fruit and vegetables. While some English nurseries are most particular about diet, planning it carefully and in close co-operation with the school doctor, it is a part of the American routine to supply cod liver oil when necessary, orange or tomato juice every day, a bottle of milk in the middle of the morning, and a carefully planned midday meal.

An interesting development of the movement in England is the starting of private schools by parents in their own homes, and there is now a growing number of nurseries on a paid basis for middle-class children.

Attention is also being paid in Great Britain to the training of specialist teachers, both superintendents and assistants, for nursery schools. Three training colleges in London offer courses, and in Scotland the Committee for the Training of Teachers is giving consideration to this question.

It is interesting to note that it is believed the Consultative Committee of the English Board of Education is taking as its next subject of inquiry, the Pre-school Child, with special reference to nursery schools.

The nursery school movement will lay the foundation of the education of the future: children who have begun their education in a certain way will require—and demand—the same kind of treatment in the school to which they proceed on leaving the nursery; consequently, through the nursery school many reforms may find their way into the upper schools as natural developments of the nursery methods. Thus the question of nursery schools is one upon which parents, and potential parents, and teachers, and teachers in training, require to fix their intelligent attention.

The Open-Air Nursery School

MARGARET McMILLAN, C.H., C.B.E.

Founder of the Rachael McMillan Training College and of the Rachael McMillan Open-Air Nursery School, London

THE Open-Air Nursery School took its rise in a slum area, and through the intimate relations with the physical effects of poverty which a large school clinic afforded twenty years ago.

In the first contact with such conditions it was realized that no indoor school could meet the new demands of the hour. And—this is a truth which I have hitherto omitted to state—it was found that no mere day school of any kind would cope with the situation now open for survey.

The first open-air nursery school included a night as well as a day camp for toddlers. It was practically residential. The efficacy of the means employed is proved by the fact that a night open-air nursery (which was carried on for seven years) is now, in nearly every case, unnecessary.

Was the school, then, merely an effort to improve or relieve bad social conditions? No indeed. It was, from the first, designed for research and experiment. This truth was long hidden only because my dear sister, Rachael McMillan, did not turn away from Reality, but faced it with a courage which did indeed cost her her life, but which left the harvest of that life intact, and charged with powers that will gradually be revealed.

The courage of the first conceptions could not, of course, be revealed in what are known as 'methods'. A change of environment that would imply changes of a wide-spread and penetrating character in educational method, was the first step. And this was secured when a large open site in a crowded London dockland area was, somehow, put at our disposal under the waiting but perplexed eye of the London County Council. Here, after many years, the experiment is still going forward, under the protecting shadow, now, of the Education Authorities.

The idea of a large and strongly built edifice

as a school for children went by the board long ago. To hold such a conception (and it was long held) is as if one, escaping from a cave-dwelling, insisted on living in a large prison. Not so did Man become civilized Man. The first efforts were in the direction of villages; later towns; then cities; and at last, garden cities. The school of to-morrow will be a garden city of children; that is to say, a place of many shelters—a township, if you will, of small schools built as one community, but with every shelter organized as a separate unit designed to meet the needs of children of specific age or stage of life. This, alone, can make nurture a possible thing for the millions. And thus only can we have any hope of meeting the cost.

The large school is still an object of terror to conservative minds. It is true that as time passes many workers venture to enlarge, very gradually, the once tiny school of twenty to forty! It is a common thing now to hear of schools for eighty little children, and very recently, some authorities, venturing greatly, have built for one hundred! The grand finale is reached when, as in one case, the awful figure 150 was whispered! But a school of 300 is, in reality, quite as safe and quite as practicable to run as a school of 150, or one hundred. Indeed, it is only after passing 150 that the magic figures begin—the figures that show how the cost of feeding and educating 300 is not so very much larger than the cost of running a school of 200.

All this, however, is true only under one condition, viz.: *that the Head has been trained to run a large school*. Here tradition and old-world training are not enough. New methods in teaching are not enough. We must have new methods of organization as the base of all the work. In short, we must have new training and training colleges. That is why we have just opened one. Given this training, the enterprise does not present much difficulty. Every shelter

is, in effect, a small school. It is also a self-contained unit, or school home : it has its own Head ; it has also its own bathroom, its own equipment, and its own school day, adapted to the needs of children at a specific stage of development. The Head of a shelter is not necessarily qualified to be the Head of a large school. She may have every qualification save this last, and, in some respects, this greatest one—the power to relate the work of many shelters so that each will contribute towards the realization of one great and final aim: the true relation of successive stages of human education.

The life changes of a very young creature are rapid. So rapid indeed are the first stages that we cannot follow them. Even after birth, adjustments take place so quickly that after a few months the little red, shapeless, and helpless infant is transposed into that active, and interesting being known to us as a 'toddler'. His pace in growth and development is slowing down, but at three years he is (especially if we give him any real nurture) very unlike his two-year-old former self: and the four and five is still going past the three at a rather headlong pace. This is why we build bathrooms of various orders—though we do this to-day to the confusion of the architect who favours one type (and that an old one) of baths for all children. That is also why we plan the days of two- and three-year-olds on different lines.

Out in the garden we have tried, in spite of difficulties, to plan generously, remembering that to deficiency of material we owe perhaps most of our failures. We have sown or planted well over a hundred kinds of flower and blossoming shrub, and at least twenty orders of tree—most of them seem to grow very quickly. Neither do we put flowers in spots—or pots: the first impressions should be *massive*, so we have great breadths of purple, blue, crimson, and gold in our garden. And this sudden flight from boxes, specimens, cupboards, etc., in the initial stage of learning, has been, I think, justified. We find the good results of it when we turn to apparatus, still more when, as happens sometimes, the use of apparatus is rendered unnecessary.

It is often assumed that the main object of an open-air nursery school is restoration to physical

health. It is often assumed, also, that this kind of school is an agency of social reform, suited only to slum areas. These misconceptions are natural in the critic *who has never seen the inner part of the movement*. To save the body is to save a shell. To save the children of the well-to-do, and the respectable only, is to repeat the folly and failure of the bygone centuries. There is a sleeping Intelligence in the waiting masses which has never yet been awakened. It was not allowed to stir in Greece in the Golden Days, for the glory of Greece was founded on slavery. The great schools of the Middle Ages never roused or even fairly reached It, for they rested on privilege. Even in the modern State It is allowed to dream rather than to waken. But in that underworld where It sleeps, It is never inactive. It prepares the decay of great nations. Yet were It allowed to prove Itself in the open, It holds the secret of renewal. To remember this, and to prepare a great engine of security and reform for the masses in their cradle—that is the mission of the open-air nursery school.

With the existing infant school we have no quarrel. It is often a charming place, conducted on good lines by enlightened teachers. It is not its working that impels us to leave it. On the contrary, it is often efficient, and nearly always a more comfortable place for the teacher than is the open-air nursery school, just as the stage-coach offered a far more interesting experience than does the railway train, or the aeroplane. Only, the best teachers will not want to stop in the infant school for ever. They will want—the best will want—to take risks in the open, in the large school, and in the slum, just as the best travellers will up and fly in the Moth, or flash by in a motor-car. The stage-coach could not carry many passengers, or meet the needs of a new era; neither can our present type of school building and organization meet the needs of to-morrow. The impulse that drives Man onwards appears, at times, unreasonable to the wise. It is none the less irresistible. And the Power that is that Impulse is continually justifying itself after many days in a manner and degree which we can hardly appraise, seeing that it belongs to an order of things that is greater than ourselves, though it chooses us for its vehicle.

Behaviour Problems in the Nursery

MARGARET F. LOWENFELD

Hon. Medical Director of the Children's Clinic, London W.11 ; contributor to 'The Lancet' and the 'British Medical Journal', and research worker in the diseases of children

EVERY mother and every children's nurse who wishes to handle her children wisely is faced with the same problem: how to combine sympathy and freedom with discipline.

All successful human beings have at their command certain habits of behaviour, of self-knowledge and skill, and these every parent wishes to enforce upon his children. At the same time he is faced by the insistent demand in modern thought for freedom for individual growth, for the development of individual traits. How are these two to be harmonized?

The desire to form in children habits of obedience, of courtesy, and of unselfish consideration of others, arises in any parent from his own experience. Every parent wishes to see his child happy, successful, and popular with his fellows. Half instinctively he knows that these results follow only upon long practice of actions of courtesy and unselfishness, and from his own experience he knows, only too sadly, how difficult a habit of this kind is to gain and keep under stress of circumstance. Cleanliness, punctuality, courtesy, to be reliable must rise out of sources laid so deep as almost to become instinctive—to become, as we say, second nature to the child; otherwise they will serve only in happy circumstances and wear away under stress.

From a retrospective view therefore, parents and teachers strongly feel the value of these accomplishments, and it is difficult indeed not to feel that no price can be too high to be paid for success.

But none of these qualities is natural to the child. A child comes into the world with one desire only—to live—and to live with the greatest number of pleasant, and the fewest of unpleasant sensations that he can compass. Curiosity, eagerness, enjoyment, go to the making of his day. The simple desire for pleasure divides itself into desire for power over

one's environment, and desire for gratification of one's senses. A baby, as far as his own nature is concerned, is prepared to sacrifice the whole world to gratify himself; it is only himself he knows, and only his own desires that are real to him. A parent is too often told that psychologists say that if these desires are repressed evil will result. How then is training to be brought about? Is all desire for courtesy and unselfishness to be given up in the allowing of full play to each instinctive drive? Or, are we to insist upon the acquisition of these so lovely social qualities by all the means in our power, and for ever after feel the prick of uncertainty lest we have thereby crippled and spoiled the instinctive happiness of the child we train?

Thus the dilemma must put itself to every sympathetic parent who is sensitive to modern thought and modern literature. And the dilemma is in a way real, but it lies more in our conception of the facts of discipline than in the nature of the things themselves.

It is of the nature of progress that every living force tends to shape for itself certain moulds into which it can pour itself, the mould and the life that fills it for the moment appearing as one. After a while the mould becomes inadequate, it needs to be destroyed that new moulds may be made. The life of art and of architecture shows this very vividly.

The same is true with forms of character. Before we can tackle our dilemma we need to consider whether we are satisfied with the character we have ourselves achieved: with our national character. In the past the English educational system from nursery to university produced a certain type of person. We were satisfied with that character: we knew the price we paid, we accepted quite contentedly the charges of insularity, of lack of imagination, of conventionality, because we knew the force of what we gained. But now we are in a transition stage, when everything is uncertain. The old

goals satisfy us no longer, and, though we only partly realise it, we are being driven to search for new forms. To fence, to be hardy, to be able to ride a horse, were at one time indispensable necessities of life, to which everything had to be sacrificed: now they have hardly more than a historical interest. To have an impassive exterior and a certain character of voice are no longer the hall-mark of a cultivated man. And yet it is of as fundamental importance to every parent that he should know the goal to which he moves, and that a price must be paid for each achievement. No very courteous, very gentle, very unselfish child excels in initiative and in daring and self-reliance. The daring child will at the same time be boisterous, rude and independent.

What is important is that each parent should decide which is for him the crucial and essential quality. Both forms he cannot have—which does he choose? Are we more interested in the cultural development of our children, in the kind of men and women they will *appear* to be as they move among their fellows, or does their individuality appeal to us more? If so, are we prepared for them possibly to be unpopular, and even for a time unmannerly, so long as they develop individual characters of their own? To achieve outward dignity early, a certain sacrifice must be made of originality and spirit; and to preserve the peculiar flavour and individuality which lie potentially in every child, equal sacrifice of the smoother qualities must very often be accepted.

As our conception of the beings we would have our children become matures, it will be seen that a bridge can be built between these two classes of qualities. The difficulty about this bridge, as with all real things, is that it is hard to build and, moreover, involves the hardest of all efforts for the parent: the willingness to alter one's *own* scale of values, and to allow oneself to be changed. All the same, it is possible, and in this lies the thrill and the hope of future education, whether home or school. The foundations of character are laid in the early years, and the best part of this bridge is built in the nursery. The key-arch of the bridge lies in the value given to the early egocentric desires of the child.

To the older educationalist the crude desires

of childhood were wrong and to be combated at every point. 'No', replies the new knowledge that is slowly coming to us, 'not bad: primitive; undisciplined; raw'. This energy, this tremendous will towards possession, towards exploration, domination, self-gratification, is good in the sense that a natural force is good, a force which may destroy a town or create its light or heat. What is necessary is to grasp the nature of this force, and its possible transformations, and to help it to find paths of development in harmony with the whole of its nature and desires. No child *wishes* to be 'naughty', to be 'dirty' in our sense, to be rebellious. He wishes to be loved, to be cherished, to be held warmly and comfortably, and to be admired. But these primitive forces within him that he does not understand force him into directions which meet with our disapproval, and the results which he deplores as much as we deplore them, automatically recur.

A child of three bangs a drum all day—a sound which is past bearing to any adult after a certain length of time—and a typical situation arises. The child's energy is driving him to a course unendurable to adult surroundings. It would appear that one or the other must be sacrificed; but, and here is the joy of the new way of regarding things, neither need be sacrificed; there is a third way by which both can be reconciled. The child's desire is for the experience of sound and the joy or satisfaction of sound produced by his own action. This is the germ of the pianist or violoncellist, and also of the drunkard who sings upon the streets. It is our joy to cultivate it also into the one rather than into the other. Ask for the loan of the drumstick for a moment; hit the drum, then hit a hollow box; the sound is different. Hit the table, the chair, the cupboard door: each gives out a different note. This is fascinating to the infant. Quickly the child will seize the idea. In place of the indiscriminate banging of a drum without attention or development, will come an eager and amused investigation of all the noises producible from the common things of life. Don't put upon children yokes too hard for them to bear; don't say 'Don't make a noise', to a child throbbing with the joy of vigorous life; give him the kind of noise to make which will harness his mind and his

eagerness, and train his sense perceptions to delicacy.

'Dirt', that is, soft material which is mouldable, or stuff with which marks can be made, is attractive and enthralling to every infant. Sense perception in small children is much keener than in adult life. It is a new experience, nothing is known about it by the child, and there is to his mind a world to explore. The coal box therefore, to the crawler, his own faeces possibly, or any source of colour and softness, to the toddler, are objects of fascination and delight. To explore their possibilities and try out the sensations they can give him is a keen delight. 'Cleanliness' as the adult knows it, comes from association and training, and has no meaning at all for the child. Punishment for 'dirtiness' has as a result no meaning for him, and horror of the adult at the state of ecstatic messiness a child in this stage is able to get into, spells to him only the marauding adult, demanding from him under pain of acute displeasure, the very things that give him keenest joy—and that for no reason.

The typical position of conflict arises. What should be done? Keep the desire and the zest, but change the material. Discipline is necessary, and the recognition by the child of suitable and unsuitable sources of pleasure. But the pleasure itself is good and the source of much that is valuable in after life. The same process of thought is needed here, in the adult, as in all problems of this kind. Two questions need to be put: 'What is the centre of this pleasure? What is it, that is, exactly, that this child is enjoying in this action?' and second, 'How can I give him the same satisfaction in another and more socially valuable way?' For moulding sense and the love of dirt: modelling clay, sand and water in a tin sand-tray, garden mould and a potting shed, form an excellent bridge, and lead by natural analogy from the original interest, to plasticine and intelligent use of modelling materials. Charcoal and paper, soft chalks, water-colour paint with large flat brushes and big stretches of paper on a wall, serve to lead the toddler's interest from the coal box to careful drawing, confining the desire within legitimate channels, but keeping the strength of emotion intact.

On the other side of the picture, it is also of

great importance in the search for freedom of expression, to allow to the child a frame-work of cool, unalterable, emotionless order. Every child needs to have a scaffolding of security about him within which to build his own character. Everything within a child is in a state of flux and change: quiet unalterable law about exterior matters, the time-table of the day, the places where things belong, the order of due precedence, appeal to him. They are essential to him for his proper interior growth, and for the harmony between his wishes and the outside world.

Contraction, relaxation, education, should be as the beat of the heart: freedom to express the reality, definite guidance as to the ways in which better expression is made; fixed, quiet, unalterable facts to return to, fixed by bigger, quieter adults, from whom come rest and firmness and recuperation, before the rhythm swings back to energy again.

THE DECEMBER ISSUE

Aldous Huxley,

ON MAKING THINGS TOO EASY

THE OMNIPOTENT BABE

MUSIC FOR CHILDREN

PRACTICAL WORK IN A RURAL
SCHOOL

PLAYTHINGS

CHILDREN'S READING—II

Nursery Education in a State School System

The Winnetka Nursery School Unit

ROSE H. ALSCHULER

Staff Director

THE nursery school unit has been an integral part of the Winnetka state school system for the past three years. The first year the group included sixteen two- and three-year-old children; the second year, a second group, or junior kindergarten, was added; and this past year, in part due to the pressure of applications and in part to a desire to probe the comparative values of different types of educational procedure with children of nursery school ages, a third group was added—an afternoon play group to care for fourteen two-and-a-half to three-and-a-half-year-old children. This group meets but twice a week as compared with the other five-day-a-week programmes. The nursery group meets for the full day, including luncheon and nap; the junior kindergarten meets only in the morning. The afternoon play group was added without increase of staff. As the *per capita* cost of nursery school education as now generally operative, is comparatively high, we must experiment to find out in how many ways, and in what directions, we can validly extend service. For some years to come nursery schools must consider themselves as laboratories in which different types of service, materials, programmes and procedures shall be developed and tested.

A state school system seems to offer a particularly good opportunity for the study of children, as in a large percentage of cases children may be studied over a long period of years. By keeping careful records of a number of children from the second to the fourteenth year, we should in time greatly increase our knowledge and understanding of child life and growth. We may then perhaps begin to differentiate between casual and causal defects in children. If we have enough records of children over a period of years, it is possible that as problems develop in the adolescent years we may be able to discern whether or not there were traces of these difficulties earlier in the

child's life. We may then be able to learn where we educators, parents and teachers, failed in our understanding and handling of situations. This is but a vision of one of the future possibilities of nursery school education.

At present our daily programme rests on a tripod of physical health, mental health and educational development. All the children are given a minimum of two thorough physical examinations each year, at which at least one parent, father or mother, the pediatrician (social hygienist), dietician, and one of the teachers, are present. In addition, all children are weighed and measured once a month. The school cares for the all-round physical welfare of the child; this includes home and school diet, hours of rest and sleep, emotional balance and social relationships at home and at school. The parents understand this and enrol their children only if they are willing to co-operate with the school staff. Advance registrations of ninety to one hundred with admittance of about fifteen new children a year, permit the nursery school staff with Superintendent Washburne's strong support, to remain firm in their demands for parent co-operation. Parent co-operation entails bringing the children to school promptly, clean and in good health. Children coughing, sneezing, or with running colds, are sent home. In addition, parents are expected to come for individual or group conferences as requested, and to do their share in carrying out any procedure or plan mutually agreed upon. The school staff maintains that the twenty-four-hour day of the child must be consistently planned and that only through close co-operation of family and school staff can this be done. It will be seen that the nursery school is not to be considered, as it sometimes is, to be a parking-place to relieve parents of the care of their children. On the contrary, it proposes a fuller and more intelligently ordered plan of child care, both before and after school hours, as well as during the school day, than has

hitherto been generally considered necessary.

As to the mental health programme—up to the present, all children have been given Stanford, Binet and Merrill-Palmer tests at the beginning and end of each school year, as part of a research problem. In considering a child's mental health, we are, of course, more deeply concerned with his behaviour than with his indicated test results. Within two weeks of a child's entrance into school a progress record is started. This includes comments on the following:—(a) Physical (general appearance, eating, sleeping, large and small motor coordinations). (b) Mental (alert, slow, leader, follower, play interests, languages, development). (c) Personality and behaviour (emotional, tantrums, whines, cries easily). (d) Social reactions on entering group—(1) to children; (2) to adults.

After entries on the above subjects are made, a 'summary of problems' is noted, e.g. (a) poor appetite; (b) apparent condition of 'fear'.

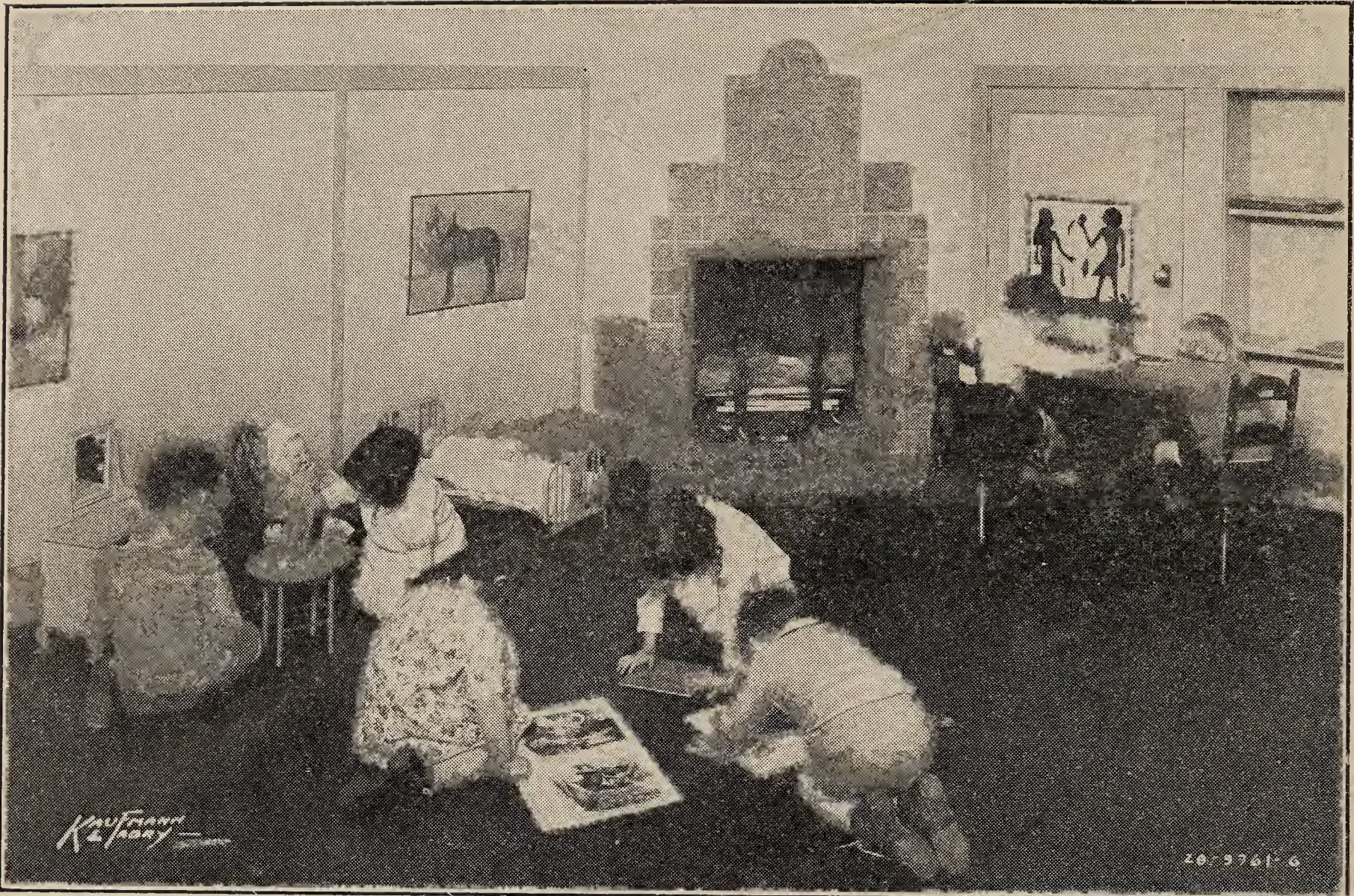
Next the teacher records recommended pro-

cedures for difficulties noted. All problems and procedures are discussed in staff meetings held by the nursery school staff (including psychologist, staff director, and dietician). Unsuccessful as well as successful procedures are recorded. It is hoped that in time a number of techniques to be used under given conditions may be evolved. A regular check is kept on each child's progress; parents are kept informed, and in addition, written reports are sent home periodically. These include height and weight figures and status of behaviour. Problems, if any, are noted, and procedures that have been tried and found helpful, are recommended. At times the child's problems involve other members of the family, and a great deal of judgment, time and care is then involved in planning and making recommendations, for the school staff believes that no thorough-going intelligent comprehension of a child can be gained unless there is as full a knowledge as possible of home as well as school conditions. It therefore feels not only justified but impelled to enter into and



Building with large Wooden Blocks

[Winnetka Nursery School, Illinois]



Picture-books and Dolls

[Winnetka Nursery School, Illinois]

study the home situation and family relationships as well as to know the child in his school life.

In Winnetka, we approached the task of this interaction between school and family life with great diffidence. There has been a remarkably fine response from the parents. The exceptions have been usually parents who are too casual, too pleasure-loving or perhaps too egotistic to be deeply interested in their children.

The nursery school is trying to extend service also to interested parents in the community who do not have children in daily attendance. Every two weeks the pre-primary staff, i.e. the nursery school, junior kindergarten, kindergarten and connecting first grade teachers, about eleven in number altogether, meet with Superintendent Washburne. Through these meetings, tentative graded lists of songs, stories, play materials and social experience (as trips to farms, blacksmith shops, dairies, etc.) are being formed. These lists, after being tested within the group,

will be made available to interested parents in the community.

The nursery unit, we believe, has a very real and potential value to the school system as a whole. The nursery school in Winnetka is housed in the junior high school building and co-operates with several departments. There are usually two or three seventh and eighth grade girls in the nursery school daily helping with luncheon preparation; they often remain to have luncheon with the little children. An effort is made to give these girls an understanding attitude towards family life and towards simple problems of general care, nutrition, and behaviour of young children. A systematic course is being planned which will correlate the work of several departments—biology, home economics and manual training. It will include practice work in the nursery school and will definitely consider pre-parental training. The manual training department has already co-operated closely with the nursery school.

The Nursery Child To-day

H. FRANKLIN

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THE nursery child of to-day tends to develop quickly. This is due to circumstances ; in his home, a small house or flat, he is often within earshot of all that goes on. His environment is very different from that of the child of forty years ago, who spent the first five or six years of his life in a ' special ' atmosphere. This child lived in the nurseries at the top of a big house and saw a great deal of his nurse and the maids, and his parents at stated times only. The conversation he heard was not stimulating, and he developed slowly. According to the standards of those days, the modern child is ' born two or three years old'. His parents, and not a succession of nurses or nursery governesses, have, as a rule, the making of his environment, and his future nervous stability depends on their watchfulness and wisdom during these impressionable years.

Life as we live it is full of stress and strain ; more things happen and more ideas are presented to us in a day than the ladies of Cranford experienced in a week. Modern life is like that, and a child cannot escape from it, but his parents can prevent the pace from being injurious to him. Children must have time and quiet in order to grow in mind and body. They must have dull times. The old-fashioned Nannie's reiteration of the fact that ' the days do draw in ' may have been unsatisfying, but the mother who tells a child just a little more than he wants to know about every subject, satiates him, and that is worse. The child who is shown too much and talked to too much becomes nervously exhausted and loses an invaluable power—the power of concentration. In self-defence he does not listen, and this habit will hinder him when he goes to school, and indeed throughout life.

Just because children develop so quickly under present conditions, parents are prone to think that lessons should start at the age of four or five, or even earlier. This is a mistake. The Parents' National Educational Union, an educational society of many years' standing and of continuous growth and with thousands of

children working under its direction, will not accept children for its correspondence course until they are five and a half or, better still, six. The P. N. E. U., however, has realized that the modern child needs regular employment at an early age, and has provided a leaflet of occupations for children under school age for the use of its members. Here are to be found suggestions of stories to read or to tell ; pictures to tell stories about ; songs to sing ; letters and words to play with ; things to count, and things to cut out and make and so on.

In this and in many other ways the professional class mother is helped in early upbringing and character-training. The newly started babies' clubs or infant welfare centres for subscribers should be able to help her in matters of physical development.

The importance of forming good habits in very early life is generally accepted in theory, but in practice undesirable habits are sometimes allowed to persist with the idea that they will be cured at school, and this is time enough. School, however, has its own part to play in the right development of the child, and should not be expected to do the parents' or nurses' share as well. Certain virtues and habits can best be inculcated in the home. Obedience, truthfulness, consideration for others, and *sense* are among these. Sometimes one finds that parents hesitate to enforce obedience ; they have the idea that a child who is under orders must be repressed. In some cases children of five and six are left to decide for themselves such points as what they will wear, and what they will eat. Decisions are tiring things, and the child who has too many to make will not feel free, but over-burdened. It is really the parents' business to settle matters of daily routine, and the child's to give obedience to sensible requests. Where this is understood, much wear and tear is saved on both sides.

Dr. Helen Webb (see *Children and the Stress of Life*) used to say that one of the most useful qualities that one could give to a small child

was *sense*. She saw no reason why little children should be silly unless it was expected of them. Mrs. Meynell, the poet, mother of seven children, had the same feeling. Her daughter says : 'The children were a long time in learning for themselves many things that their mother took for granted that they had been taught. But of silliness they were early made aware, if only by the merest inflection of their mother's manner.'

Children have been called unpleasantly, but truly, 'little symptoms of the home', and this is more than ever the case in these days when they live on so intimate terms with their parents. If the parents are able to give their children the right kind of environment, this familiarity will breed respect—not only in the children for the parents, but in the parents for the children.

Some of the needs of children and of parents have already been referred to, but the Parents' National Educational Union is of use to parents in other ways. It imbues them with the understanding that their profession is not only one of the most difficult, but also one of the most hopeful. It helps them to solve their problems—in fact, the child 'Problem' ceases to exist.

It also realizes that the child is a person, and not an object to be studied, a person with all the needs and rights, physical and spiritual, that are the prerogatives of a member of the human family.

There are no cut-and-dried handbooks, or means for self-education, or any of the modern devices for turning out a desirable member of society ; instead, parents are treated as thinking individuals, possessed of that love which every child demands as his birthright, and craving for knowledge and understanding.

Charlotte Mason, the Founder, offered to the members a philosophy of education and a philosophy of life, starting from birth and continuing through life to death. This philosophy is embodied in her works :—*Home Education, Parents and Children, School Education, Ourselves, Some Studies in the Formation of Character*.

These are the books which thinking, loving parents read and re-read and, in so doing, they have grown, and have found that their lives and their own principles and their own ideals for their children have become fortified and re-established.

No two children are alike ; every parent is different. This philosophy, really understood and accepted, makes of the family a place where the child experiences a loving, wholesome *atmosphere*, a wise *discipline*—which is soon translated into *self-discipline* and *self-control*—and a life of *ideas* and ideals, of service and of heroism :

'Education is an atmosphere, a discipline and a life.'

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 166

THE FIRST YEAR OF LIFE
EXPLORING RELIGION WITH EIGHT-YEAR-OLDS
THE RETREAT FROM PARENTHOOD
ON BEING A FATHER

Books Received

ENGLAND IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY, Vol. II, 1806-1810. A. F. Fremantle. George Allen & Unwin, London. 16s.

CHILD-LORE : *A Study in Folk-lore and Psychology*. Mrs. S. Herbert. Methuen & Co., London. 6s. *An attempt to give a simple account of what may be called the 'science of childhood'.*

DON'T BE TIRED. Dr. Peter Schmidt. Translated by Mary Chadwick. G. P. Putnam's Sons, London and New York City. 3s. 6d. *Shows how fatigue may be combated and efficiency increased without injury to health.*

The Dangers of Untruthfulness towards Children

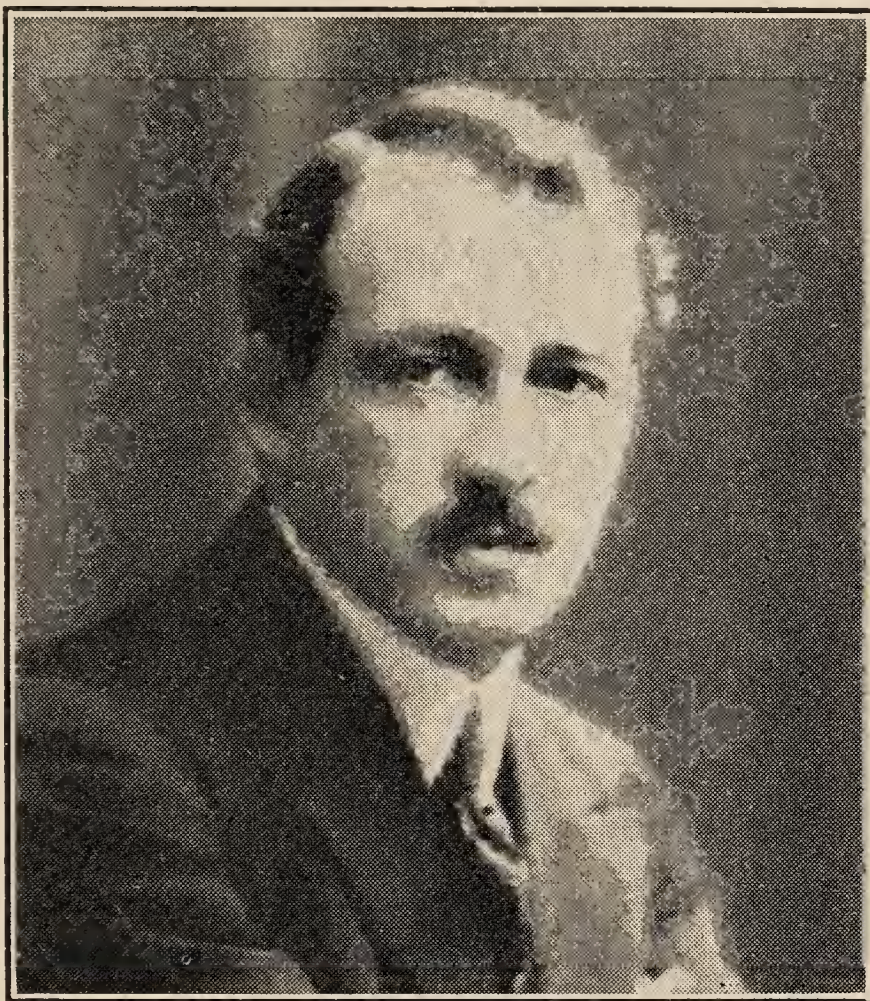
RENÉ LAFORGUE

Late Assistant at the Clinique Psychiatrie of the Faculty of Medicine of Paris ; late President of the Psycho-Analytical Society of Paris ; Director of the 'Revue Française de Psyche-Analyse'.

WHEN I was asked to contribute an article to the *New Era* on the subject of lying, it seemed to me that I could not do better than discuss the very important aspect of it that has to do with the conflicts arising in a child's mind over the every-day untruths implied or told by parents and teachers — untruths that are commonly accepted, but yet may have very disastrous results.

This is not an easy subject, for we are forced to generalize, and on closer inspection, many habits of mind that are looked upon as sacred on account of tradition or religion, are seen to be false.

A typical example is the story of the stork bringing babies, a story that is still told in certain countries when children ask untimely questions. There are also 'white lies', told to unusually precocious or too observant children whose questions are, to say the least, indiscreet. One of these is the semblance of perfection with which parents clothe themselves — a lie which often has its foundation in no spoken word, but merely in the demeanour of the parents. They hide their real life from their children — their disagreements, their misunderstandings, and the existence of a sexual side to life.



Dr. René Laforgue

Thus children are made to believe that parents never quarrel, never deceive, and know almost everything. How often does a father or mother say, when a child has been found out in something he would rather have hidden : 'A little bird told me', or even 'God tells fathers and mothers what their children do'. Or again, it is merely the acceptance of the existence of a guardian angel who watches over the child and sees everything he does, that constitutes the lie.

Then there are the fairy tales that are told, or that are accepted, as truths, fairy tales that have their root in religious beliefs more or less archaic.

Thus we are faced by a number of extremely complex situations in which it is difficult to see where the illusion which a child needs for normal development, ceases, where the necessary facts concerning religion end and superstition or the direct lie, begins, i.e. situations in which are affirmed things that the scientific and critical mind is obliged to recognize as false and non-existent. Modern psychology has destroyed many sacred illusions that have survived an archaic, mystical and mythological past. Many frank and intangible beliefs are thus seen in their true perspective, which shows them to be what might be called

'holy lies', deceiving us as to the reality of life and its sorrows and miseries. But in spite of this advanced knowledge, we are not yet able to accept without revolt the interference of science with our private religious, or other, beliefs. The interference seems to us like sacrilege, especially where it touches on human weakness and need of illusion and lies; for there exists in us, and especially in children, a direct need of illusion and lies—a need that renders the undeveloped or the neurotic incapable of social evolution.

I should like to discuss certain conflicts that the spoken or accepted untruths of parents and teachers may set up in children, and to indicate the conclusions to which such a discussion may lead.

These untruths may be conscious or unconscious, that is to say, the adult may tell them with or without believing them himself. He tells a lie with intention when it is for the purpose, for example, of getting rid of a child's importunate questionings, or when it is for the purpose of soothing him. This question of intention is paramount, for I do not believe that a lie, as such, has always a prejudicial effect on children, their intelligence often developing in the struggle against the difficulty. It is the intention that counts—its aim, the hostility from which it springs.

The typical case, of course, is the intentional lie when a child asks questions concerning sex. The child who, up to the age of two years, shares the same bedroom as his parents—and this is often the case—is precociously interested in sex, and can ask very precise questions, independently of the fact that, his interest having been too early aroused, he may have learned, for instance, masturbation. Such questions are answered by lies, which do not deceive the child's intelligence, or his instinct, already too well informed on the existence of sexuality. But they can mislead his conscious mind, and force him into being systematically in opposition to everything that his intuition tells him is true.

The result is, generally, that stupidity succeeds to this precociousness, for his parents have said that he must not take any interest in what he knows is true, and he therefore thinks he must appear to be stupid and ignorant in

order to appear 'innocent'. This mechanism, once set up, may be applied to everything relating to life and science in general, not only to sex matters. Such a child is inclined to become stupid and repressed, though in reality intelligent and sensitive. He loses confidence in himself, does not dare to be himself, becomes over-conscientious and, turning from reality, lives in imagination, and tells himself stories. Have his parents not set him the example? Have they not obliged him to distort the truth? Have they not accustomed him to live in illusions and afterwards to deceive others?

Having lost confidence in his parents, this child will try to imitate their behaviour; he cannot rely on them to enlighten him as to the questions that obsess him; he becomes accustomed to thinking himself deceived. He may grow into a hypocrite; he may become vicious; he may offend against the law by thieving, as we have seen in children brought to us for this offence. Thus he reproduces the behaviour of his parents, who showed him the example—doing in secret forbidden things.

This case is very common, and the observation of it has obliged psychologists and psychoanalysts to engage in a struggle against the hypocrisy that very often informs the teaching given by parents, and in a struggle against religious hypocrisy as it exists in all sects.

Then there is the lie of the monster or bogey (Nemesis) who will carry off or in some way punish the child if he does the least wrong. The ignorance of parents in telling, or in allowing to be told, such stories is most lamentable; they do not seem to see how cruel it is to take advantage of a child's trust and helplessness in order to make him 'obey'. They do, in reality, cultivate in him an anxiety of mind that may last throughout his life.

Is not this story a variation of the story of the devil that is to be found in so many religions? And are both not due to the desire on the part of both parents and spiritual advisers to make their power felt? Was not this the model of the organization of society in the Middle Ages, when parents and princes tyrannized over their children and subjects? Remember the Inquisition!

To come back to the question of the bogey or monster. In many cases a child will respond to

such a suggestion by developing a continuous sense of guilt from which (in order to propitiate the bogey) he tries to escape by accustoming himself to the practice of self-punishment—a practice that consists in inflicting a hurt or deprivation of some kind on himself. It is necessary to stress the fact that the need felt for this self-punishment is *unconscious*, and that it comes to light as consistent unhappiness (because the child would have a sense of guilt if he were happy), or in many other ways—perhaps as organic disorders or disease, by failure in achieving an ambition, or (and this is a very common form) by behaving so as to provoke punishment.

If a child in this state feels happy, he dreads the anger of the bogey, so he does something which is forbidden, in order at one and the same time to justify his feeling of guilt to himself, to give public evidence that he is 'naughty', and to provoke the punishment his conscience tells him he merits. At school, these children from time to time become unbearable, playing

all kinds of tricks on their teachers. Sometimes, they seem as if they just *had* to be naughty, and as if they were indulging in a species of sadism. Those who are interested in the problem of the relations between masochism and criminality should read the work of Alexandre on *The Criminal and his Judges*.

Can a strong and courageous child overcome these difficulties? we may well ask ourselves; or, are they not essential to his becoming strong and courageous? These are difficult questions to answer satisfactorily, for undoubtedly the struggles that many people go through to overcome such 'faults', are a source of strength. Yet these difficulties may become so stubborn that no child can overcome them normally or quickly enough to ensure his successful social adaptation to life as it is to-day. For this reason, when we see a child faced by too great difficulties, we should ensure his having help in overcoming them, so as to avoid wasting his energy and strength in useless struggle with himself.

Cover Competition

The present design on the cover of the *New Era* is the original work of one of Professor Cizek's art pupils in Vienna. The intention is to employ this same design for six months, and then to employ different designs, also the original work of children, making use probably of four designs during a year. The Editor would be very glad, therefore, if parents and teachers would submit suitable original designs in colour, from *children up to and including the age of sixteen*, accompanied by the name and address of the child. Designs submitted cannot be returned and will be held to be the property of the *New Era*.

A PRIZE OF ONE GUINEA WILL BE AWARDED
FOR EACH DESIGN CHOSEN

This Competition will close on 1st April 1931

The Editor hopes very much that designs will be submitted from all over the world, so that the original child art of different countries may be represented. Designs should be sent to the Editor, *New Era*, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1, and the envelope marked 'Cover Competition'.

The English and American Nursery Schools Contrasted

WINIFRED HARLEY

Head Nursery School Teacher, Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, U.S.A.

DURING its brief existence the American nursery school movement has made tremendous progress both in the number of schools established and in the development of procedures adapted to the American situation. The first three nursery schools were opened in 1920.

But the progress of the movement is not merely a matter of numbers. It is in the type of nursery school that is being established, the standards that are being set, and the uses that are being made of the nursery schools as research and teaching centres, that the American institution is unique. For this reason, some account of the impressions of one who has been privileged to do pioneer work in the nursery schools of both England and the United States may be of interest, especially to those who are struggling against great odds to establish more nursery schools in England.

The nursery school in America, while it has undoubtedly grown out of the English movement and has been quite definitely influenced by its standards and methods—the first three nursery schools were directed by English or English-trained teachers—has nevertheless developed along somewhat different lines and is setting itself different standards and developing a new purpose in the educational scheme.

In England, the nursery school has been thought of as an excellent means of ameliorating the condition of young children living in overcrowded, inadequate homes in the congested areas of large cities. The emphasis has therefore been upon the need for more and more nursery schools in these areas, and upon the possibility of running them quite economically when large numbers of children are taken care of. Miss Margaret McMillan has had a great influence along these lines in England.

In the United States, the nursery school seemed to arrive at a moment when the interests of many different fields of study were beginning

to focus upon the young child. Psychologists were beginning to insist upon the importance of the early years in training and development, and upon mental health as of the same importance as physical health. Pediatricians, with their growing interest in preventive medicine, emphasized the significance of early care and the better feeding of young children. Socially, also, there had grown up in many places a need for some community nursery for the growing number of children who had to be brought up in small apartments with no nursery or outdoor play space.

Most interesting of all, however, is the nursery school set in the midst of college life within the precincts of the college, and it is this type of nursery school that has made a valuable and unique contribution to the movement. The home economics departments of several colleges had already broadened their conception of their field to include the care of a baby in a practice house, and they were ready to broaden this somewhat meagre experience for their students into a real training in the care and development of young children. For this training the nursery school provided the perfect opportunity as a place to observe and study young children in a normal, happy atmosphere. The fact that the study of the child was part of a college course meant that it was approached scientifically and at the level of a college standard. Theories were set alongside practice, and studies were initiated to find out more about all phases of the young child's development.

This new emphasis in home economics study had its impetus chiefly from the opening in 1920 of the Merrill-Palmer School of Motherhood and Home Training in Detroit, which was endowed to train girls and women for better motherhood. Miss Edna Noble White, Director of the School from the first, and herself trained in the home economics field, had the foresight

and vision to see that this training for home-making and motherhood might have as its centre, observation of and experience with a group of young children, and this, at that time quite new, idea has meant an entirely new background and emphasis for the nursery school as developed in the United States.

The interest of the college home economics departments in the young child has meant that the nursery schools serving as a part of their 'demonstration equipment' are set into a much richer background than that of education alone. The home, with all its functions, needs, and duties, was already the subject of study in these departments; now the students in these departments are studying and caring for the children themselves in their relation to the best kind of home and the best opportunities for their growth and development. This means that many matters not hitherto a matter of study and instruction, such as parent-child relationships, as well as clothing, food, household management, budgeting, buying and cooking, are being studied in relation to the young child both at home and in the nursery school, and, more recently, in relation to family life as a whole.

One interesting outcome of this development of nursery schools in connection with home economics departments and other study centres is, that the leaders of the American movement are not so much interested in stressing the need for nursery school education for every child, as in investigating critically the best possible buildings, equipment, and programme for the nursery schools already in existence, and, as far as feasible, in planning them upon the basis of true know-

ledge of what is best for children rather than upon opinion.

Thus the English and American points of view concerning the nursery school seem to be quite different. The American point of view has meant a close scrutiny of the procedures and standards of the American nursery school, with the result that many hitherto accepted practices are being questioned, studied, and changed.

At the Nursery School Conference held in Chicago in November 1929, it was extraordinarily interesting to note that nursery school teachers from all over the country were becoming critical of their methods and equipment, and felt that they must above all avoid crystallization in these matters at the present stage of nursery school development. Some of the questions considered at the conference dealt with the following: The number of children in one group in one room, and the advisability of stories, games or group work with babies of two to four years; the number of meals in a day, and the enforcement or non-enforcement of the 'clean plate theory'; the amount of clothes children should wear, and the best material and pattern; the place of the nap—morning or afternoon, the amount of sleep desirable, the number of children sleeping in one room, and the ten minutes' rest before the midday meal.

All these questions and many more are being considered by students in the various child research centres all over the States.

Among nursery school people in England there is a good deal of scepticism about and criticism of so-called research in this field, and much emphasis upon the dangers of experimenting on children.



A Large Packing-case, a Plank and a Ladder make a Good Boat [Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit

There is also much comment upon the expense of small nursery schools. There is something, indeed, to be said on both sides. However, it is well to realize that at present very little of our nursery school practice is founded on scientific knowledge, and moreover, that in England even some of the excellent studies that have been made there, such as the study made by Orr and Mann on the benefit of adding a half pint of milk to the daily diet of school children, and the work of the Mellanbys, is very little known among nursery school people who might be bringing some of this knowledge of nutrition into the homes of the people. What we need is to broaden our outlook and to look beyond the educational field alone into any related field where help and knowledge about the young child can be found. We badly need in England a centre which could devote time to bringing together the results of specialists in different fields of study, planning research where it is needed, and passing on scientific knowledge not only to nursery school workers but also to parents in all classes of society.

In conclusion, we may say that the fundamental difference in the institution in the two countries is that in America the nursery school, in contrast to its origin in England, has taken root in the colleges and universities, where certain standards, based upon the work of specialists in many varied but related fields, are gradually being established. These standards for the care, training, and education of the young child are gradually spreading downward through the social scale, again in contrast to the English situation. As a result of this origin

of the nursery schools of the United States, the nursery school as a definite part of primary school education will come last there, instead of first as in England. When, however, it does become the foundation upon which public education is

built, it should bring certain new principles to the whole educational system. For it is the first time in history, as Professor Kilpatrick of Columbia University pointed out at a 1929 meeting of the National Education Association, that specialists from many different fields have centred their attention upon an educational unit and given it the benefit of their findings. This broader, more scientific conception of the function of the school, said Professor Kilpatrick, we hope will be applied finally to all education, so that ultimately the physical, mental, and social needs of children will be considered of equal importance in all school life.



Making a Boat of the Jungle Gym
[Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit]

At the meeting of the British Association for the Advance of Science, held in Bristol, England, in September, thirty women scientists were among the speakers. Among these were Mrs. Susan Isaacs, President of the Education Section of the British Psychological Society, who spoke on the 'Relationship Between Thought and Fancy in Young Children'; Dr. Olive Wheeler, Professor at University College, Cardiff, who spoke on 'Variations in the Emotional Development of Normal Adolescence'; and Miss Margaret Drummond, Teacher of Psychology in the Edinburgh Training Centre for future Teachers in Scotland, who spoke on 'The Pre-School Child'.

Children's Reading

ROBERT FIREBRACE

*M.A. (Cantab.) Late Professor of English, Muslim University,
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MOST thoughtful students of this age are agreed that the greatest menace to civilization at present lies in the crushing out of individual taste by external authority, and its replacement by machine-made, standardized values. It is just this power of acting as an individual rather than as a unit in a herd, that gives man his unique position in the order of nature, and hence it follows that the present tendency, represented by the growing influence of bureaucrats, financiers, press 'lords' and purveyors of 'popular' literature, signifies retrogression rather than evolution. We are in danger of going back to the polity of the beehive, not forward to the New Jerusalem.

What has this to do with children and their reading? It is my object to show that these two subjects are vitally connected. In fact, one might even say that the issue of this great conflict between the 'standardizers' and the 'individualizers' will be decided in the children's departments of bookshops and public libraries.

Most young children, as all parents know, have well-marked individualities. It is the work of the teacher to train and develop this individual nature. An axe, however, is an easier tool to use than a pruning-knife, and many teachers find their work much simpler if they chop down the living tree and replace it with a serviceable, standardized scaffold-pole!

In every school in the world where the teachers have not achieved true individuality, they are engaged in imposing their own herd standards on their pupils. As probably 90 per cent of teachers and schools come, more or less, under this category, parents will often be forced to send their children to schools whose methods and results may seem to them of dubious value. Is there then any way by which such parents can render their children more or

less immune from this deadly disease of standardization which is sapping the life of modern civilization? There is. The child who has been taught how to read has a strong tower of defence against which the arrows of the standardizers will rattle in vain.

'But every child knows how to read, surely?' Wait a minute. Reading and feeding are analogous problems, and I suppose everyone will admit that feeding is a far more complicated action than the mere mastication of food in the mouth. Similarly, reading is far more than the ability to recognize the meaning of certain symbols on a printed page. There must be the power to 'inwardly digest' what is read, to make it part of one's mental life, and to use the ideas assimilated in some creative output of one's own. Even more important is the power to discriminate by means of 'taste', between the wholesome and the harmful. I have not the space, nor should it be necessary, to work out this analogy in detail. I simply seek to show that just as the person who knows how, what, and when to eat, has usually a healthy body, so also is healthy-mindedness a prominent characteristic of those who know what true reading really means. And no person can be called truly healthy-minded, who is a victim of external, standardized values.

How then can a parent ensure that his children achieve that freedom and balance of mind which right reading (followed by its inevitable sequel, right thinking) can give? Fortunately, the problem is not difficult of solution. It is solved by feeding the natural romanticism that exists in every child's mind. W. G. Grace, when asked how he made some of his famous strokes, used to answer: 'I just put my bat to the ball'. Similarly, all you have to do is just to put your child to the book. But it has to be the right book. All the really great

books, *Hans Andersen*, *Gulliver*, *Treasure Island*, and others, which successive generations of the romantically-minded have delighted in and will continue to delight in till the end of time, are exceedingly cheap. For a few pounds, nowadays, a man can have one wall of his child's nursery lined with books. Use the natural instinct for collecting things that every child has, and he will no more think of maltreating his books than he would his stamps or his bird eggs. Let him have a little pocket-money regularly to spend in the bookshop. Many bookshops have special children's corners where children can 'browse' to their heart's content. From the bookshop is a short step to the public library, and most of them now have well fitted up children's departments with experts in attendance. Parents who are ratepayers should insist that their own public library makes proper provision for the needs of children. Moreover, there is no reason why some artistic bookseller should not design and sell special children's bookplates, which would, to the child mind, make book owning even more of a joyous adventure.

The parent who takes these steps will soon find his children straying from their library into his. Shall they then have the same freedom to range at will among adult books as among their own? This generation answers with one voice, Yes. Whatever be the dangers of the child mind becoming contaminated by contact with the *Decameron* or the *Arabian Nights* (or even with passages in Shakespeare or the Authorized Version), they are as nothing beside the appalling psychological damage done by that instrument of the devil, the locked bookcase. Everyone is clean-minded to start with, in spite of theological ideas about original sin, and childish curiosity about sex, if dealt with honestly and directly, is soon allayed, provided there seems to be no evidence of a conspiracy to make a mystery of the subject. Outspoken or salacious literature is dangerous only to those who are already corrupted, or to those whose natural desire for knowledge on this subject has been perverted, by an improper withholding of it, into prurient curiosity. To put it in a word, tell your children the truth, or as much of it as they can assimilate, and you may leave your books where you please.

The boy or girl who has become free of a good library will never be a slave to a teacher or bow down before the ephemeral idols of public opinion. Contact with what is really good will give them power to see the shoddiness of popular tastes and standards. But let there be no false 'high-browism'. The budding mind must have food, of some kind. *Deadwood Dick* and *Sexton Blake* need not be dead-ends; rather should they be the first rung of the ladder that leads past Doyle and Haggard to Buchan and Stevenson and Dickens and the rest of the immortals. But I say this unhesitatingly: the 'penny dreadful' is as much better than no book at all as prison fare is better than starvation.

It would perhaps be useful to add some definite sources of information about children's books. In the first place, always consult your bookseller and your librarian; they will be only too pleased to give you the benefit of what is usually a lifetime's experience. Ask your bookseller also to send you four times a year the twelfth number of the Readers' Guides, which announces new and forthcoming books of interest to young people, with descriptive notes. In case of any difficulty these may also be obtained direct from the National Book Council, 3 Henrietta Street, Covent Garden, London, W.C.2.

Associate membership of the above body, costing 7s. 6d. per annum, carries with it the right to receive specially prepared book lists on all kinds of subjects, as well as the opportunity of using an inquiry bureau.

Finally, those who are prepared to spend any sum, from £5 to £500, on children's books, would be well advised to get into touch with the National Council of Social Services, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1, who, in conjunction with the Library Association, have got together a specimen children's library of several thousand volumes, which, as far as I know, is unique of its kind. They have, with the assistance of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, also issued a most comprehensive catalogue of books for young readers (*Books to Read*) which includes the period of adolescence. This can be ordered from your bookseller, price 10s., or consulted at any public library.

Nursery Schools and Day Nurseries

Practical Experiences

CATHERINE M. STYER

Founder and organizer of nursery schools in Liverpool and in Canning Town, London ; Superintendent of holiday schools, play hours and kindergarten classes in settlements and day nurseries

*Not books, nor art, but life itself is the basis
for all true education and instruction.*

H. PESTALOZZI

PICTURE the first day of the first nursery school in Liverpool : one child has given out boards, and another clay, and after showing the children how to make a ball and then press it into bowls, saucers, and so on, we await results—left to themselves, the children make *coffins* !

They live within a penny tram ride of the river and bridge and docks with large steamers and seagulls ; but many have never seen these things. A funeral in their street was the dominant interest until they came to the nursery and

found plants and pets, water and clay and sand, beads and bricks and pencils, and were taken to see the blacksmith, the dairy, and other interesting things.

‘ Until the nursery school started I had to sit my three children under four years old on the table when the floor needed scrubbing, and I was afraid lest they ran into the saucepan when I prepared their father’s dinner,’ said a Canning Town mother ; ‘ you see, we have no yard, and the streets are dangerous.’ Another said : ‘ There are twenty-three of us living in our



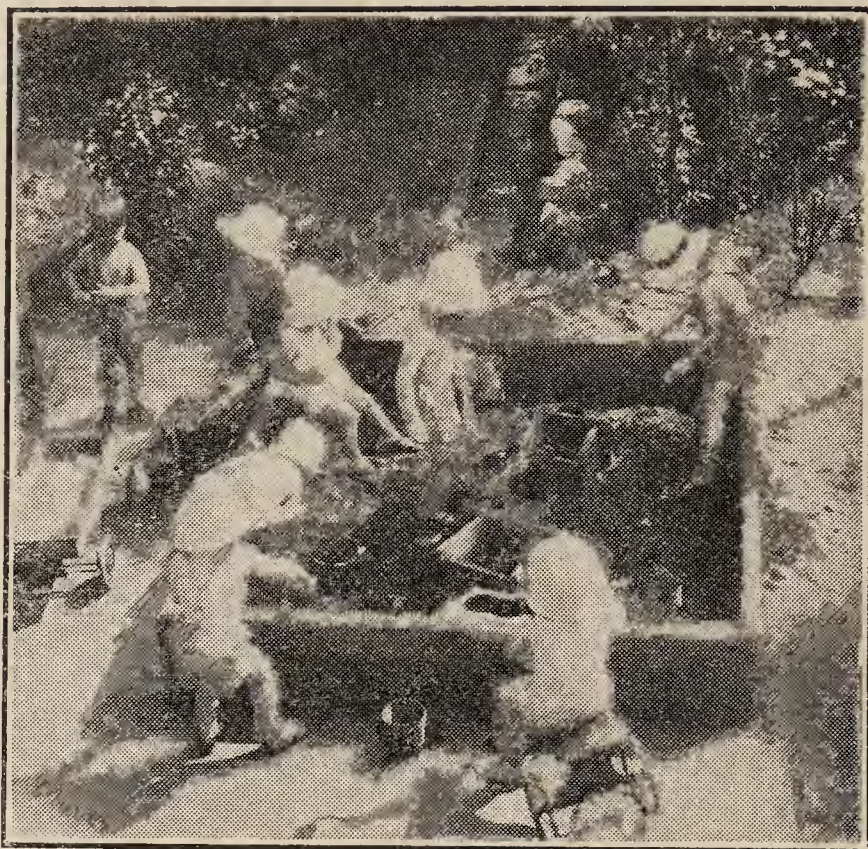
On the Roof in the Heat Wave

[The Children's House, Bow, London, E.3

small house, so Jimmy just loves to be able to run around at the nursery.' 'Doris wants to help me since she has been to school, and she dries the spoons quite nicely and brushes up the crumbs', was said of a wee mite of four years old. Another mother told me that the household had to go on tip-toe because Bobbie had said that the daisies he had brought from school were asleep.

Instance after instance proved to us the value of the nursery school both in training and in developing children, and in creating a friendly, intimate relationship between teachers and the working-class mother. One experiment in East London suggests a way of widening the basis of interest in the contacts between the home and the nursery. The mothers formed themselves into a Women's Citizens' Association, holding their meetings in the nursery, and in this way worked from interest in their own particular children to interest in all the children of their own and other nations. First-class speakers, as well as the nursery school leader, came and spoke to and with them, and visits were paid to the House of Commons—Jack Jones, their own Member of Parliament, being their guide; the Law Courts; the Old Vic; and other centres before unknown to them.

Evening meetings held in the nursery when mothers and teachers try to understand each other's difficulties, and to find out what is best for the children, are very valuable. We find that visiting speakers are always impressed by the friendliness of the mothers, and by their freedom in asking questions and giving information—often of a most illuminating kind. It is evident that they regard the nursery as a necessity and the teachers not only as helpers, but also as allies. Their confidence is one of the great rewards of the work.



Chelsea Open-air Nursery School [London, S.W.3]

In England, the health of children in poor districts is cared for by the health visitor until they are one year old; after five years old, they come under the charge of the school physician. It is in most cases only through the nursery school that the very important years of two to five come under medical supervision, though the conscientious mother can take her child to those infant welfare centres that provide for the ex-baby.

From a Liverpool Roman Catholic came a letter invoking the blessing of all the saints upon the nursery school, for the doctor there had discovered a disquieting small lump in Alice's back, and had sent her to an open-air hospital. Had the condition remained undiscovered until Alice had come under the care of the school doctor, she might have been crippled for life; as it was, there was every hope of her cure, the disease having been taken in good time.

The atmosphere of a good English nursery school is homely, peaceful and simple, and all the things in use seem to be those that belong to a nursery in a well-ordered home. The schools abroad that I have seen or read about have more thought-out and elaborate materials, and in America the nursery schools form a basis for psychological and biological investigation, and records are kept most carefully. This side of the work is practically non-existent in England.

Some twenty years ago, no one in England thought these schools of value except as philanthropic palliatives for over-crowded houses and over-busy mothers, but of recent years mothers in the wealthiest suburbs of London have come to desire advantages similar to those of the nursery school, for their own children. It is true that wealthy parents can give their children a nurse and sometimes a garden, but they have

begun to realize that little children need to be among many children of their own age. The modern home is too apt to be a place of bustle, unsuitable for the unhurried living and routine best for the little child.

It is noticeable in the paying nursery schools that, though the children are far better able to express themselves than are the children in working-class districts, they seem less purposeful and less able to concentrate on their various activities. So many are only children, badly in need of companionship; or highly strung children who need to be away from busy or over-anxious parents; some of them live in flats, and need the contact with nature that the nursery school can give.

Finally, a word must be said about *crèches* or day nurseries, and what they do for some children of nursery school age. *Crèches* were founded to 'mind' the children while the mothers were at work, and it is the rule of many day nurseries that children are admitted only while their mothers are *out* at work. Thus attendance is irregular, and the aim merely physical care. The day nurseries fill a need of

mothers compelled to work, but, by ignoring the mental and spiritual welfare of the children, they seem to produce inert, drilled 'dummies', incapable of doing anything for themselves or of taking part in any purposeful activity, or of expressing themselves. In most day nurseries the toys are neither constructive nor educational, the washing basins are placed well above the children's reach, and alas! the mites are considered 'good' when they are most inactive.

But fortunately, there are a few day nurseries that provide trained educators instead of only nurses and nursemaids to care for the toddlers. In some cases the children are able to have this enlightened care for only a few hours each day, and here the best results are obtained where a trained nursery school teacher is the 'toddlers' nurse' and keeps them happy and free and usefully active all their waking hours.

It cannot be too often repeated that children, both rich and poor, need the most skilled and psychologically sound guidance in these early sensitive years, and that they get on best when they have the companionship of their peers.

The League of Nations in Schools : League Teaching in the Baltic States

HEBE SPAULL

THE Educational Conference and Exhibition held during August in Tallinn, the picturesque capital of the Estonian Republic, has already been mentioned in last month's *New Era*, but a short description of some of the ways in which Estonia is fostering an international spirit in schools might be of interest.

Among the exhibits were a number illustrating the methods used in teaching pupils about the League of Nations. For example, there were several specimens of essays written by boys and girls on the League and on the Five Power Naval Conference. The children are apparently encouraged to decorate the covers of their essays with appropriate designs or pictures. One child writing on the Five Power Naval Conference had illustrated the essay with a painting of five doves who, in place of the proverbial olive-branch, were carrying

in their beaks the national flags of their respective countries !

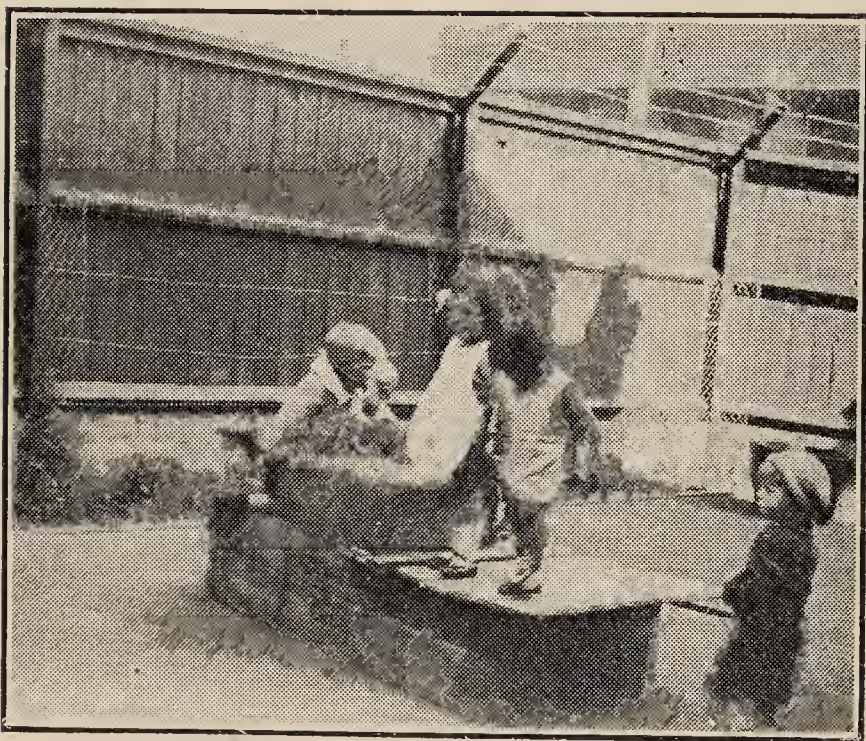
The children are encouraged to correspond with children in other lands and as they are for the most part good linguists, it is possible for them as a rule to correspond in more than one language. The children are also encouraged to make albums of newspaper cuttings, pictures, stamps etc., of particular countries so as to foster an interest in other lands. This method was introduced into Estonia at the end of the war, when up-to-date school books in the Estonian language were almost non-existent and the teachers had to rely on articles in newspapers and magazines for a good deal of their material. So successful, however, did the method prove, that it has been retained, though the necessity for it is now a thing of the past.

Nursery Schools in Many Lands : A Survey

A. J. LYNCH

*Headmaster of West Green School, Tottenham, London ;
joint-author of ' The Next Step in National Education,' ' The Case for
Nursery Schools ' etc.*

A *QUESTIONNAIRE* on nursery schools, containing sixty questions and divided into three sections—nursery schools, nursery school teachers, medical inspection—was circulated a year ago on behalf of the New Education Fellowship to such countries as it was thought might be interested. So far, replies



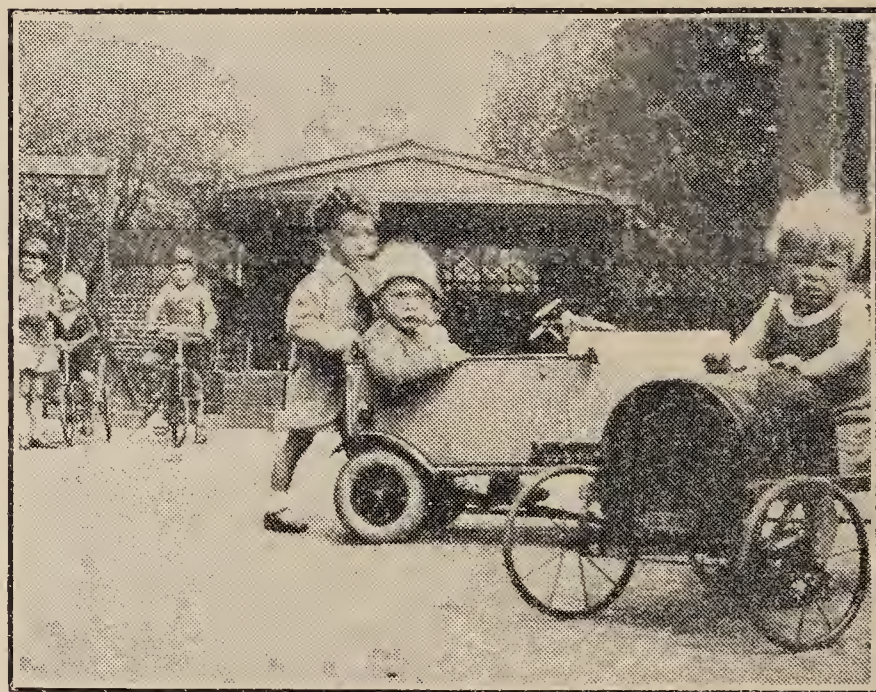
*Frances Newton Free Kindergarten,
Sydney, New South Wales*

have been received from America, Belgium, Bulgaria, Chile, Egypt, Esthonia, Finland, Holland, New South Wales, Poland, Russia, Scotland, Sweden, Switzerland and Vienna. All countries, except five, gave detailed answers to all questions.

One of the drawbacks in an inquiry of this kind is that of using terms which do not exactly correspond in different countries. The term 'nursery school' in itself seems to have been only vaguely understood ; the term 'nursery

class' does not appear to have conveyed any meaning at all, while the use of the term 'day nurseries' led to a certain amount of confusion. The words '*crèche*' and 'kindergarten', outside Great Britain, appear to be almost universally used to represent what in England is commonly known as the nursery school.

It is evident, in an inquiry of this kind, that the terms used must stand for the same thing in all the countries approached. Although the answers to the *questionnaire* have produced some valuable information relating to the pre-school child in various parts of the world, it is likely that the questions were conceived much too closely in terms of the problem as it presents itself to the English mind. Still, a beginning has been made, and it is hoped that it will lead to the building up of a permanent international commission having for its object the study of pre-school children with special reference to the arrangements made for dealing with them.



Open-air Nursery School

*[West End Lane,
London, N.W.6]*

Nursery Schools

From information already to hand, pre-school work appears to be carried on in kindergartens, *creches*, day nurseries, nursery schools, pre-schools, *pouponnieres* and *jardins d'enfants*. These institutions are carried on mainly in the poorer areas of large towns. Their num-

*Rommany Nursery School*

[*Gipsy Hill Training College, London, S.E.19*]

ber is small compared with the numbers of children in the age-groups up to seven in each country. In New South Wales, for example, with a child population below seven of 343,000, there are only sixteen kindergartens, and these are all in one city. In England, with a child population between three and five of two millions, there are about thirty schools, although the number of them is increasing. In Vienna, the child population is 200,288; there are 225 kindergartens, about half of which are run privately and the rest by the state. Except in Russia, all types of pre-school work are carried on largely by private enterprise assisted by state or municipal grants.

The institutions are used chiefly by the labouring and poorer classes, although in some cases (as in New South Wales or Sweden) they are used by all classes. In some cases, the institutions are entirely free, but even in those where fees are charged, there is free provision for people who cannot pay. In Vienna, fees are charged on principle, but even here 69 per cent of the children are admitted free. It is not possible, owing to wide variations in the rates of exchange, as well as to the vagueness of the

question asked, to say what are the costs of running the schools or what, indeed, is included in the costs. In some cases, the amount charged includes the cost of the meals; in others, it is the fee charged for actual cost of attendance at the school.

The length of the school day varies considerably. Sometimes it corresponds to that of the ordinary school day, but where the institution is carried on as an entirely separate concern, the day is often longer. This necessitates the provision of several meals per day. Where the hours correspond to those of the ordinary school, there is little or no provision for meals except a ration of milk during the morning. In some cases the meals are given free; in others, they must be paid for.

The schools are invariably carried on in separate, although not necessarily in specially constructed buildings. Usually they are in private houses, or in any place that offers fairly suitable accommodation. Sometimes the buildings are attached to, but form no part of,

*Serving the Dinner*

[*Jellicoe Nursery School, London, N.W.5*]

the ordinary school. In Poland and Russia there is a tendency both to build special schools and to attach them to the ordinary school. In no instance, except in England, are the schools conducted in the open air, due doubtless to differences in climate. Even in Sydney this is not the rule, but everywhere efforts are being made to provide more space for the purposes of

play. In Poland, exceptional arrangements are made for the provision of summer camps. Almost everywhere, however, children are encouraged to sleep in the open air. In Russia, it is said, children often sleep out even in the winter when the temperature is thirteen degrees below zero centigrade.

The time-table in all countries provides for washing, sleep, play, story telling, and so on. In most instances the school practice approximates to that of the best conducted nursery schools in England. The *jardins d'enfants* of Belgium and the schools of Bulgaria, however, rather approximate to the practice of the day nurseries.

In all countries close contact is kept with parents. In some, parents help to manage the centres; in others, they form part of the executive committee. But everywhere parents are encouraged to attend lectures and talks on the management, care and training of children. In every country where centres are established and functioning properly, public opinion is favourable to them, partly because of the excellent work they do, and partly because they are coming to be regarded as a social necessity.

Nursery School Teachers

In all countries, whatever the type of school, the work is in the hands of trained teachers. In some cases there is a head teacher who, however, is usually responsible for a class. The length of teacher-training is from two to three years, and is both hygienic and pedagogical. Each teacher has charge of from ten to forty children—ten in Russia, and thirty-five to forty in Bulgaria, Estonia and Poland. Each teacher is provided with a helper, who has no particular qualification, to assist in attending to

the physical needs of children. In America, Poland, Russia and Vienna, definite psychological work is undertaken, and records are made that are passed on with the child from stage to stage. In no case is there established any contact between the schools and the schools for adolescent children. In England, New South Wales, Poland and Russia there is definite contact with the Women's Training Colleges, but only in Russia is pre-school work included in the curriculum of university examinations.

Medical Inspection

Medical inspection is carried out in all countries, but the visits of the doctor may vary from twice a year to twice a month. Medical assistance, however, is always at hand when required. Trained nurses, though rarely attached to the schools, pay periodical visits, both to school and home. Medical records are kept, and

are usually passed on with the children.

When the children reach primary school age, and medical inspection takes place, the results are usually shown to be so satisfactory as to warrant an increase in the number of these institutions. In most countries the work is linked up with that of the health and child welfare services.

Day nurseries, where children are just taken care of during the day, are established in most countries from which replies have been received. Sometimes, as in Bulgaria, the work is entirely of this nature, while in America and England the tendency is much more in the direction of nursery schools which include training in nurture as well as physical care.

Enough information has been forthcoming to lead to the belief that everywhere there is a definite movement towards dealing with the



On the Slide

[Springmead Nursery School,
London, N.W.3

child in his earliest and formative years, though at present the data is insufficient for forming any definite conclusions. But research will go on, and reliable information be gathered. Particulars will be published from time to time.

In the meantime, it is interesting to watch the developments in England. In addition to the thirty nursery schools already established, the President of the Board of Education recently informed the House of Commons that he had received applications for the approval of

by the Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, and the afternoon session by the Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Health. There is significance in this. The speakers at the conference include the Senior Medical Officer of the Board of Education, and representatives of all branches of education, including Administration Training Colleges, the Schools, and the N.U.T.

It is believed that the Consultative Committee of the Board, which issued the now famous Hadow Report, and which is to issue shortly a report on the junior school, is devoting its next inquiry to children of the nursery school age. If this is so, it will be a great gain, and will certainly go far to bring the question of the necessity for nursery schools before a wider public.



Nursery School [Scheveningen,
Holland

sixty others. Moreover, he promised to do what he could to take up the matter with Authorities which, as yet, have made no provision.

Further, a notable whole-day Conference on Nursery Schools is being held this month in London. The morning session is to be presided over



Ecole Maternelle

[Warsaw, Poland

A Progressive School in Japan

SYLVIA L. BECKER

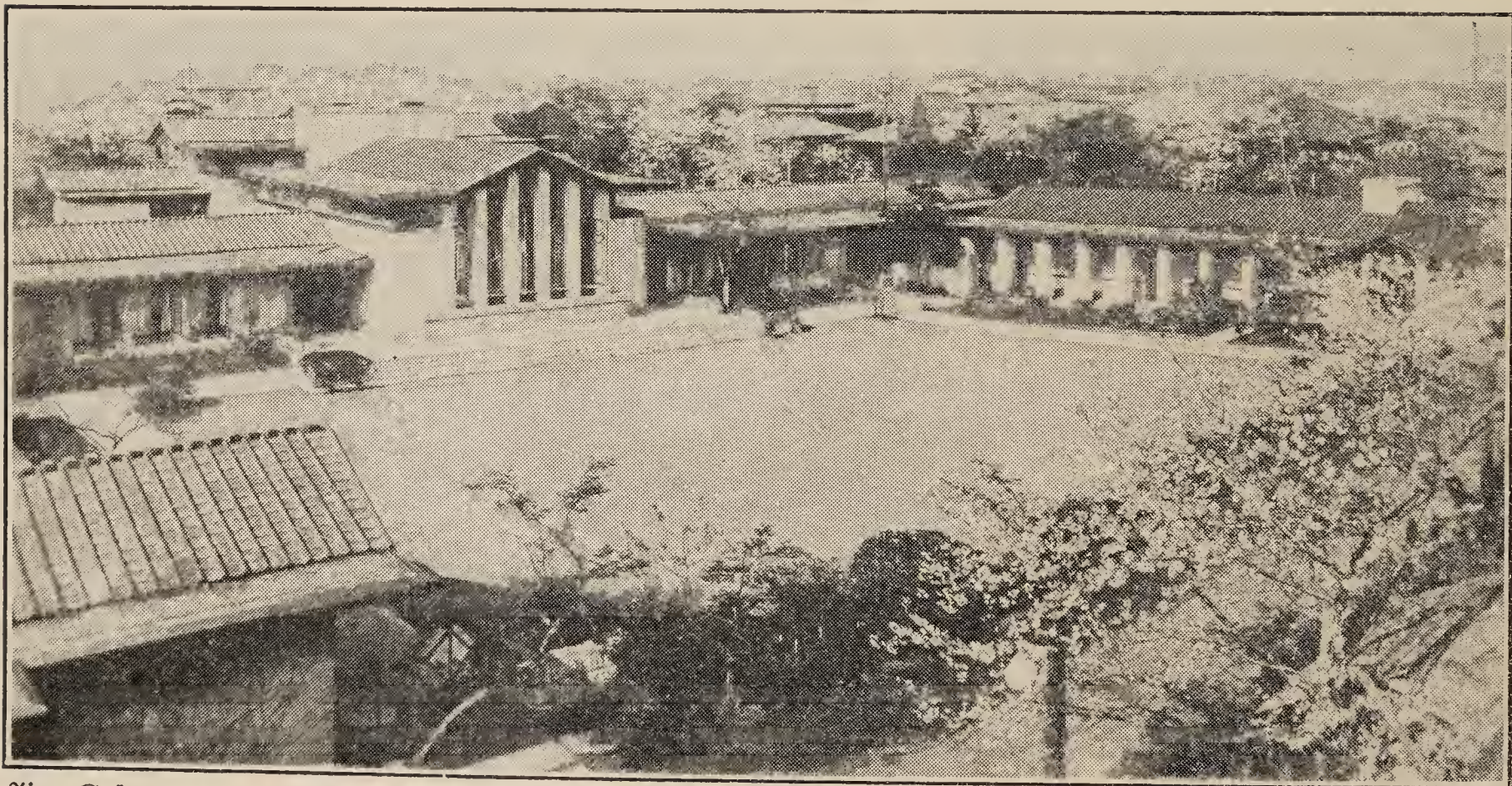
Member of Staff of Derby Academy, Hingham, Massachusetts

ON a recent tour in Japan I had opportunities to visit several schools in and round Tokyo. The elementary and public ones, at any rate in the city, are, as are city schools in other countries, seriously overcrowded, and the necessarily strict discipline and routine work preclude practically all opportunity for individual development. But I was amazed at the high standard of art work in one state school, where I found a pottery kiln and some beautiful children's work.

Very different from the ordinary school seemed Mrs. Hani's Jiyu Gakuen (school garden of liberty) which I elected to visit in preference to another more ordinary high school, having heard of its many unusual features. We were met at the entrance by the head girls who, in fairly fluent English, explained that Mrs. Hani was engaged for the moment but would welcome us later. They conducted us all round the school, which was designed by an American architect and was erected some ten years ago.

The style is simple—a low house, standing round three sides of a large lawn with a few well-kept flower beds. The classrooms are bright and airy, furnished with practical desks and separate chairs. There is a pleasant music room, a fine auditorium with a raised platform, and a dining-room large enough to seat 300 people round small tables.

I feel that a brief history of Mrs. Hani's life is necessary before one can appreciate the value of her school. Interested in the social problems of her day, she began to write articles for the papers on subjects of interest to women particularly. Her unusual talent was recognized, and she became assistant editor of one of the leading newspapers, the first woman to enter journalism in Japan. Her husband was also on the same newspaper. They worked hard together, and have made a success of all their ventures. Mrs. Hani has published several books, and together they have edited, for years, a monthly magazine called *The Home Friend*.



Jiyu Gakuen

Tokyo, Japan

In 1921, the fact that neither the Mission nor the Government schools could offer just what they desired for their daughters' more advanced education, made them decide finally to found a school of their own.

On the first day there were thirty girls; there are now 300, and it has been necessary to add to the present number of buildings. A large tract of land was purchased, where Mr. and Mrs. Hani have a new private residence; a hostel for the sixty-eight boarders and a primary school for both boys and girls were opened last year. Before long, they hope to build a boys' high school and university on the same ground. The fullest co-operation is given by the parents of the girls, who take a keen interest in the school.

Mrs. Hani believes that if each individual of a community, whether family or school, contributes his or her share to the general work of the house, servants should not be necessary. She is proving this theory fully. Although probably all the girls come from homes where they have little need to do their own work, yet at school there is not a man or woman about the place in the capacity of servant. The girls do everything, even the gardening, and grow most of their own vegetables. The life of the boarders at Jiyu Gakuen might seem very hard to many of us. They get up at 5.30 a.m. They are divided into groups with a leader over each. In half an hour all the beds are cleared away into cupboards, fires lit, and the necessary sweeping and dusting finished; another group goes to the kitchen, and at 6 all sit down to breakfast. The dishes are washed up and everything is tidy before they leave for school about 7. On arriving there, they find the place already opened by two girls whose duty it is to lock and unlock the school, night and morning. At 7.30 the cleaning of this building begins. By 8 everything is done and the girls assemble in the auditorium for prayers, after which the prefects bring up any points relating to school life about which they need guidance.

In Japan, school education is divided into three sections. At six years of age the child begins a five-year primary course. At twelve years, a five-year regular course commences, after which the students may specialize in three or four subjects for a two-year higher course.

This brings them to the age of nineteen, when the majority of girls leave school. At Jiyu Gakuen, however, several graduates have stayed on to help with the organization; some have opened a co-operative store from which they supply all the needs of the school in stationery, food and so forth. Others have begun to organize classes for working girls. The subjects taken in the regular course are similar in every high school, but the methods employed at Jiyu Gakuen are unique. The morning between 9 a.m. and noon has two periods of work divided by a twenty-minute break, and each day these periods are devoted entirely to the study of one particular section of the curriculum. That is to say, science, including hygiene, botany, mathematics, will fill one morning; Japanese literature, history and geography will occupy two days probably; English another day, and art and handicrafts the fifth. This method is to encourage concentration. The afternoons are usually occupied with music or gymnastics, and the school disperses at 3.30. The boarders return to the hostel, and after an hour's recreation and a meal, they study until bedtime at 9 p.m.

The five forms working at the regular course have to take their turn each week in preparing the midday meal, for which day girls also remain. A special diet committee, made up of staff and three girls, decide the menu for each day and buy in stores from the school co-operative association. A detailed statement of the total expenditure and cost per head is made during the meal by the leader of the form in charge for the day. The diet committee read the latest publications from different countries, and the girls are thus fed on much more wholesome food than they otherwise would be. The health record of the school is excellent and compares most favourably with that of any other institution in Japan where a purely Japanese diet is followed. The food is varied and is based on Chinese and foreign cookery. The girls, it is hoped, will continue this method in their own homes; they have constant practice at school and each keeps a recipe book. The strictest attention is paid to the question of economy, another branch of training badly neglected elsewhere in Japan.

After we had made a tour of the school we at

last found ourselves in the presence of a little Japanese lady in a drab grey kimono—Mrs. Hani, who impressed us with her strong personality. She speaks no English, so that all our conversation was carried on through an interpreter, one of the staff.

At noon, we were conducted to the dining-room, now crowded with silent girls. As it had been thought probable that we should not care for the Japanese meal arranged for that day, Western food had been provided for us, which must have added appreciably to the expenses of the dinner that day! Lunch time is evidently a very jolly period. There was gay chatter until the dessert was served, when various form leaders reported on school and outside affairs. A couple of articles of topical interest were read from newspapers, and much amusement was caused by one rather small girl who apparently reprimanded the school in general for the recent number of breakages. Then came our turn, and we had to make little speeches, which were afterwards translated by two of the senior girls for the benefit of those who could not follow our English. I happened to be wearing a costume of hand-woven material which interested everyone very much, as a hand-loom is a recent acquisition to the school, and the girls have been making experiments in weaving.

When I had the good fortune to visit the school again some three weeks later, they begged me to tell them something of the differences between the school and home life of Japanese and English girls. I suggested that the girls should ask questions in English or Japanese, and was surprised to find how many of them used the former, expressing themselves clearly and concisely, with little sign of hesitation or nervousness. The majority seemed to follow my replies with ease, and interpretation was necessary, I am sure, only for the juniors. The meeting was not allowed to drag; soon the head girl announced that they would sing a few songs. Although Japanese music seems unusual to us at first, one could hardly want anything more melodious, for community singing, than some of their old folk-songs and chants. At Jiyu Gakuen, they sing really well; they are taught voice production and are accompanied on the piano. They learn many English

songs, and seldom sing in translation, which may account, in some measure, for their good accent. In fact, their knowledge of our language is truly amazing. The senior girls even publish a small newspaper once a week, written entirely in English, without supervision.

Almost every Japanese child is a born actor, we were told, and Mrs. Hani encourages her girls to produce plays. Recently a public performance of *Hamlet* (in Japanese) was given, the girls having made all the scenery and costumes themselves.

Misdeeds are dealt with by the leaders, and are so few and unimportant that one might almost say no system of punishment is needed at all.

This school would be considered progressive and remarkable in any country in the world, for not only are the girls being trained to use their minds, hands and bodies so as to get the best out of them, but also they are being taught to think, plan and speak for themselves, and not rely on others. The girls understand the aims and reason for all the work they do, and the financial and economical aspects are always kept in view, so that every girl who finishes her education at Jiyu Gakuen should be able to become an efficient, self-reliant and careful manager of home or business.



A Bureau of the International Missionary Council has newly been created at Geneva and is under the direction of Mr. J. Merle Davis, Director of the Institute of Pacific Relations. The aim of the Bureau is to organize the sources of information concerning the effects of modern industrialism upon the native population in various parts of Asia and Africa and other industrially undeveloped regions; to bring such data to the attention of the public of the countries involved, both through the League of Nations and the established press channels, and throw light upon the whole problem involved in the process of development, exploitation and betterment of the backward peoples resulting from their contact with the so-called Christian and civilized nations.

First Steps to Freedom : Games in the Silent Reading Hour

JAMES A. MASTERTON

Headmaster of Foulford School (Elementary), Cowdenbeath, Fife. Author of 'For Silent Reading', 'Primary Silent Reading', 'More Silent Reading' etc.

(A second article on 'Games in the Silent Reading Hour', by Mr. Masterton, will appear in the December issue, and will show how games may be used in younger classes)

THE spirit of freedom ; the death-knell of rigidity ; the downfall of formalism. These, one might in truth say, are the slogans of the new teaching. In no subject of the curriculum can these slogans be more frequently heard than in the most necessary of all subjects : silent reading. For is not this *the* one on which success in all others depends ?

To-day, the modern pupil reads in school that he may be assessed as to his knowledge of the content of the passage read. Is not this the query ever uppermost in the mind of the progressive inquiring teacher: Has the pupil assimilated ? 'Wherein', asks such a teacher, 'have I failed in my teaching, as undoubtedly I must have failed, when the responses of so many of my pupils are unsatisfactory ?' Too often, alas ! the answer must be : 'Your teaching has been too formal, too hidebound, too rigid. It has breathed little, sometimes even nothing, of the spirit of freedom'.

With children of all ages, games are the elixir of life. But too often have answers, oral or written, been considered the only media for testing a child's powers of comprehension, or for eliciting how careful or how careless he is in reading. Why has drawing been so despised ? Given the right spirit in attack, drawing responses become a great game for the eight- to nine-year-olds. One instance will suffice. The class were asked to read this passage—two minutes being allowed for reading and digesting—the aim being to encourage rapid and accurate thought-getting :

'The girls in a senior class were asked to make paper hats for the pupils in the infant school, as they were to take part in a school concert. They made these all the colours of the rainbow—violet, indigo, blue, green, yellow, orange, red. Each child chose a hat to match her dress. Bunty looked very sweet in an orange-coloured hat.'

The passage was then removed from the pupils,

and this instruction took its place on the blackboard : 'Take a box of crayons and make a picture of Bunty.'

When the finished works of art were displayed, how the class rocked with laughter ! In several cases Bunty was arrayed in different coloured garments. Indeed, in one case one might almost have said that she was clad in a tight-fitting dress of 'rainbow wool'. What a delightful lesson on the necessity of paying attention to details, and of thinking while reading !

But one of the best games of all is advertisements. It rouses the sleepy-headed ten- to twelve-year-old from his lethargy. It makes him study the hoardings, it forces him to con the advertisement pages of his home daily paper and of any available monthly magazines, for otherwise he is hopelessly out of it when the teacher asks : 'What about five minutes for playing advertisements this afternoon ?' What is advertised under these slogans ? 'Alas ! my poor brother !' 'Defend these Ivory Castles !' Happy the child who can spring a slogan none can answer ! Who can say we are not encouraging reading ? Possibly, the desire to read, so fostered, may yet bear good fruit in years to come. So interested has one class become in this game that they have a large sheet of paper on the classroom wall on which they pin wrappings or hall-marks of various articles. Once a week they apply this silent reading game of advertisements in their geography lesson, and question each other on the week's collection, thus acquiring a knowledge of the whereabouts of the manufacture of many of our most common goods. A game which can thus catch on is surely worth playing.

May the day be not far distant when an occasional game is recognized as one of the best incentives to work, for here there is no formalism, no rigidity, but freedom, joyous freedom.

Questions from Parents and Teachers

Parents and teachers are sometimes faced with situations with which they feel they cannot adequately deal. You are invited to send such 'posers' to us, and when necessary we shall seek the advice of men and women whose work is the study of young children and adolescents. We ask that you send 1s. to cover cost of clerical work involved. Questions sent in by the middle of one month will be answered, if possible, by the beginning of the month following, and those of general interest will be published in the "New Era".

My boy of ten has been caught out more than once telling his father lies about his boy friends, and what they do when they are together. We are afraid that he will become a habitual liar and would be glad of any help you can give us in regard to the best treatment of him.

At the outset, why are we shocked when a child tells lies to a parent? Do we ever stop to consider how difficult it is to speak the truth? If we add up all the half-truths, prevarications and lies which are resorted to in a household, who would have the larger share—adults or children? If we are to live at peace in society we are bound to hide the truth at times and, if we are honest, we will acknowledge that there are occasions when it is even necessary to tell lies—perhaps to shield a friend or in order not to hurt someone's feelings.

You may argue that adults are more likely to prevaricate than to tell direct lies. That is true; but which is worse? A child has not learned the art of prevarication, so his lies are direct, but not, of necessity, more serious. Besides, by the age of ten he has discovered a good deal about the queer adult code connected with falsehood and truth, and is modelling his own ideas on it.

Granted, then, that we may need to revise our own standards in regard to the whole question of truth-telling, let us consider this particular case. This boy tells lies about his friends and to his father. Between nine and eleven it is natural for a great loyalty to spring up between a boy and his friends, and apparently this youngster has to choose between letting them down or telling lies. It is no wonder that he comes out on the side of the lies. What is wrong in the situation is that it has been made possible for the boy to lie about his friends. He should not be asked to give them away. It is not fair to put him in such a position. On the other hand, if it seems advisable to know about

the movements of the group, it is far better to chat over the situation with them all together (preferably after a good feed!) and see if some common understanding can be reached.

Another element which may be present is fear of the father. Loyalty alone would be satisfied if the boy said 'I cannot—' or even 'I will not—tell you'; but would the matter be allowed to rest there? A boy who is afraid of his father may very likely become crafty in order to try to avoid his displeasure. If this is the case, nothing but a radical change in the father's attitude towards the boy will prevent further trouble.

Direct lying should not be overlooked, but at the same time we must not blame a child before we have examined ourselves, and tried to find the cause. It is more than likely that we shall end by blaming ourselves.

Should a child be sent to boarding school?

It is impossible to generalize. It depends on the child himself, his parents and the respective merits of the available day and boarding schools. Where a child is happy and adjusted at home and school, with plenty of suitable friends in the district, there is no need for him to go away, but there are, undoubtedly, many children who are infinitely better at boarding school.

Where parents find it hard to let their children grow up, boarding school may help to set the youngsters along the all-important road of emancipation, widening their interests and giving them further possibilities of independence of thought and action. The entirely new surroundings will also help a child to make a new start, which in some cases is all too necessary. It might also be added that a previously unappreciated home may be seen from a new angle, and often in better proportion, after absence at a boarding school for a time.

E. MILDRED NEVILL

(Psychologist, Frensham Heights School;
Psychology Lecturer, Clapham Training College)

Book Reviews

The First Year of Life. By Charlotte Bühler. Translated by Rowena Rippin and Pearl Greenberg. John Day Co., New York City. \$3.50.

This is an excellent translation of the German accounts of the investigations of the Viennese Psychological Institute. The work was carried on in the Kinderübernahmestelle der Gemeinde Wien, over a period of approximately five years, under the direction of Frau Professor Bühler and her assistant, Dr. Hildegard Hetzer. Part I deals with the method of investigation, and types of reaction to test situations. The babies were grouped according to their age in months, an average daily cycle for a baby at a certain age, and the approximate time for a certain form of behaviour to manifest itself was thus established. Accompanying graphs show what may be expected of an average baby during a day; how, for example, as the time spent in sleep grows less, impulsive movements and experimentation increase, and how negative reactions, e.g. defensive, decrease considerably after the seventh month. Part II deals with Baby Tests arranged to test monthly development; these continue through the second year. One may thus know if a child is advanced or retarded in physical or mental control, in the manipulation of materials, or in social relationship.

Exploring Religion with Eight-Year-Olds. By Helen Firman Sweet and Sophia Lyon Fahs. Henry Holt & Co., New York City. \$2.50.

This charming and somewhat naïvely written book is full of simple wisdom. It is the diary of a Sunday School class taught on principles of freedom and individuality. The teachers understood the value of allowing children to discuss freely and without interference any and every problem of conduct, evolution, history, theology and civilization. The result was that the children, without any aid from the teacher except that of freedom to discuss, reached views which were sane and tolerant, views likely to be the basis of intelligent, persistent, sane and tolerant thinking in after life. The method of the book is interesting. At the close of each Sunday School the teacher wrote down a full record of what had been done and said by everyone, together with a short list of educational problems, suggested by the course each school hour had taken. This is the bulk of the book, and it is actually a full piece of scientific observation. The language of the children is naturally childish enough, and at first sight the simple problems—problems of behaviour, quarrelling and untidiness, for example, of starfishes and monkeys, and the problem of the nature of God—seem expressed in very elementary terms. But the germ of understanding is always there, accompanied by two things: *first*, a natural unblunted keenness of interest; and *second*, that fearlessness of saying what they wished, which was the best, if the indirect, contribution of the teacher. At the end are five chapters which endeavour to interpret the full scientific account which

has preceded. The first gives the point of view of the work, summarized by the words: 'Trust the child. The second sums up the children's experience in worship. The third shows the growth of the children's characters during these Sunday hours; a fourth contains advice for the teacher; and the last shows how to help the children to find themselves. In this last chapter the brief life-stories of a few children, with an explanation of their resultant natures, are specially instructive. Here is an intimate account of the practical working of the new ideals.

The Retreat from Parenthood. By Jean Ayling. Kegan Paul, London. 10s. 6d.

This book comes as a challenge to the muddle that prevails in what the author describes as the basic human industry: the breeding and raising of children. Jean Ayling emphasizes the dilemma which faces the professional woman, who is compelled by Society to choose between sterility and a career. The attempt to rear a family while continuing her profession inevitably results in failure in one or both directions, for the reason that the home has not kept pace with modern development. The author proposes a reasoned and reasonable scheme for applying to home problems and to parenthood all available scientific knowledge. The plan centres round the establishment of Child Rearing Services, which would put at the disposal of parents expert knowledge and specially trained people to enable the professional woman to continue practising her profession while rearing a 'well-born' family. It is no Utopian scheme, for those who look into the future must surely expect some such development. Our baby and mothercraft clinics and nursery schools already indicate the direction of modern tendencies. This stimulating book should be read by all who are conscious of the monstrous inefficiency of present-day motherhood, and who look for sane and scientific reform.

On Being a Father. By K. M. and E. M. Walker. Norton & Co., New York City. \$2.

A racy, chatty, readable book, modern and up-to-date, but containing nothing that *New Era* readers are likely to find new. The appendix by a boy of fourteen is its most original feature. He offers this useful piece of advice to children:—'If you want to make your parents in a good temper, buy them some sweets'. But the book contains one bad blot; on page 34 the authors state that the average man is apt to look upon his baby in its infancy as 'a damned nuisance'. Is this ugly cynicism true? Not in my experience. To many a man, one of the greatest thrills of his existence comes when he takes his first-born in his arms. Fatherhood is often inarticulate, but it is a much deeper and more powerful emotion than certain ultra-moderns realize. One feels that, despite its cool cleverness, there is something shallow and casual about this treatment of a truly big theme.

International Notes

At the Elsinore Conference of the New Education Fellowship in 1929, a special section was devoted to the nursery school movement in many lands. It is most important that those interested in this new movement, in which there is freedom to develop without the modifications of tradition, should be able to compare their work and adopt good procedures and ideas from any country. There will probably be an international conference in France in 1931, by invitation of the Ecoles Maternelles, and another international session will take place at the N.E.F. Conference in 1932, which will probably take place in France.



Miss Hilda Bristol is still collecting the data necessary for the restandardization of the Merrill-Palmer Performance Tests. She is working with children between the ages of 18 months and six years from as many varying environments as possible. As soon as the information is complete, the results will be published. In addition to the study of varying abilities and of the influence of environment upon the development of these abilities, much work is being done in the study of personality, based on the outline worked out by Dr. Rachel Stutsman of the Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit.



A very good film of a Day in the Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, has been presented to England by Miss Edna White, Director of the School. Professor Jameson of the London School of Hygiene and Tropical medicine, Keppel Street, London, W.C.1, has arranged for its entry into England, and anyone can have it by applying to him.



The Sunshine Lodge College for Young Citizens, begun in 1922, as a means of conducting intensive educational research, has recently been moved to a new house in Rockland Avenue, Victoria, B.C. The principles of the College conform very closely to those of the New Education Fellowship; chief among them is the principle of co-education, which the College adopted from the beginning since the directors felt that the ideal school and the ideal home are essentially the same, and that history shows that the highest standard of manhood and womanhood has been maintained in countries and at periods when both sexes were well represented in family life. The children or 'students' are not trained for citizenship in the communistic sense, but are regarded as young citizens from the time they realise the part they play in the welfare of the whole.



Greater Felcourt, an interesting new boarding and day school, modelled on Public School lines, was officially opened in October at East Grinstead, Surrey.

The training is individual; there are only about two pupils for each adult member of the staff. The

students are taught typewriting. Diction is taught by aid of the microphone and broadcasting loud-speaker. The pupils contract to carry out their allotted work, but have considerable discretion as to the order in which they shall accomplish their tasks. This is facilitated by an individual classroom for each subject with its own specialized library and teacher. Loose-leaf exercise books are employed, which really become encyclopædias of the learning of each student. There are no examinations until the time comes for the entrance examination of a university, for one thing that is not done here is to 'cram'. A novel craft is engineering carpentry or the working of wood by engineering methods, which enables results to be obtained without the acquisition of the skill of the carpenter. The weaving shop, the electrically equipped laundry and a modern kitchen enable domestic crafts to be acquired. Only six pupils reside in each home house.

The school buildings are nearly all windows at the sides. In hours of darkness, modern scientifically arranged electric lights are employed. Instead of the barking busy buzz of bells, silent or soundless signals have been installed whereby a clock automatically lights an electric lamp in each classroom at the pre-determined signal time—this is the first time this method has been used in a school. All the pathways and roads are lighted on the press of push-switches, numbers of which are distributed in convenient positions. On pressing one of these the lights come on and remain for three minutes, when an automatic Venner switch turns them off. If wanted for a longer time, a push can be pressed again.



The Student Christian Association at Fort Hare, South Africa, was opened this summer. The ceremony coincided with the opening of a Conference attended by two hundred European and native students and former students, at which was discussed an adequate solution to the economic, social and religious problems affecting both races.



The 1931 Fellowship Announcement of the American Association of University Women has now been made. It includes Fellowships for research in physics, chemistry or biology; a European Fellowship; a Latin-American Fellowship to further friendly relations with women students of the Latin-American republics, and to assist them to prepare for public service in their communities; an international fellowship for one year's research in some country other than the holder's own; an international senior Fellowship for the same purpose; a Caroline Spurgeon Scholarship to enable the holder to carry on two years' research work in London while residing at Crosby Hall; and an international residential scholarship at Crosby Hall for the purpose of research work in science or art in London. All communications should be addressed to the Secretary, A.A.U.W., 1634 Eye Street, N.W. Washington, D.C.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

THE Christmas Season is at hand. All over the world people are thronging to the toy shops and buying—buying—buying. Millions of money are being spent. This expenditure provides employment for workers, manufacturers, shops, but is the benefit to the cause of child development commensurate with it?

The modern view has found in toys real and essential opportunities for development. In the present-day educational system toys assume values that are positive and intrinsic. Instead of serving merely to kill time until a child is mature enough for so-called useful things, toys are now regarded as instructive tools of the growing personality. Toys of the right kind may educate just as truly as doing sums in arithmetic. . . . Education does not wait for school; it begins with the new-born infant's first random movements, the first chance co-ordination of movements, through which his early satisfactions come. . . . In learning how to grasp a ball, to evoke the forthcoming noise from a rattle or rubber animal, he is acquiring his first experience of mastery over environment. This mastery, developed to higher and higher degrees and extended to every sphere of human life, is the sole purpose of education. (*Play and Playthings*. Child Study Association of America, New York City.)

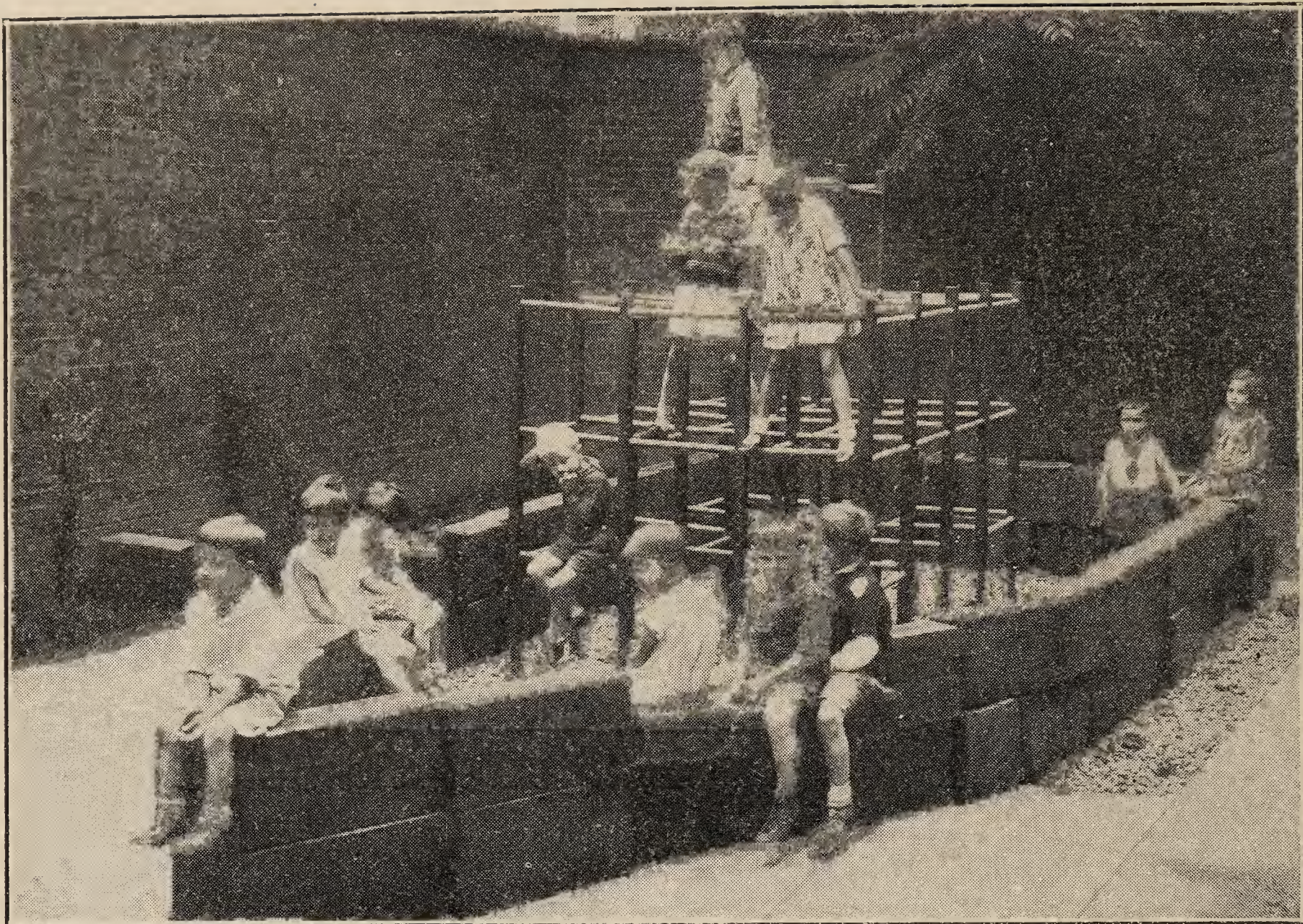
Toys, looked upon as tools of the child's development, take on a new importance. Certain principles of choice emerge. At different stages in the development of a child, certain specific types of toys will meet his needs. Too advanced or too elementary a toy is useless, and will not really be appreciated.

All through the early years, toys which develop the physical side, train the senses, produce muscular co-ordination, which can be used for construction and make-believe, and which allow for imagination and creative ability, are needed.

But—they must suit the age and stage. From the physical growth point of view, for instance, the baby of one year to eighteen months, before he crawls, will need objects to help to focus his eyes, to reach and to grasp. When he begins to crawl he will require things to push, to pull, and to crawl after. Later on, he needs to gain control of arms, legs, hands, fingers; at this age the motor-car, the tricycle, the kiddie-kar, and material to be fitted into spaces, are popular, and simple steps and other objects to get on to and get off. Then comes the stage (from four to six years) of the jungle gym—mention of which was made in the Outlook Tower for November, and illustrated on page 150 of that issue—the slide, and simple ladders. A child of four years was observed to mount steps and slide down twenty-five consecutive times. At this age, this occupation requires a real effort and was obviously providing the satisfaction of a special kind of mastery of the body.

The same material can be used in more elaborate ways for the child from six to eight years of age. After this, games of skill, increasingly difficult, all serve the same purpose.

Similar suitability for different stages may be found in other types of toys—in those that train the senses, the imagination, and so forth. At a certain period a great deal of pleasure and general knowledge may be obtained through geographical and other puzzles, through games of lotto representing objects and enriching vocabulary. Many good constructive toys are obtainable. In Great Britain, Meccano is the most popular. A specially good point about Meccano is that its sets become increasingly elaborate, and thus provide for advancing phases of development. In England, Hornby's



*On Board Ship—large wooden Blocks
and Jungle Gym*

*Family Centre Play School
Public School Forty-one, New York City*

and Bassett-Lowke's locomotives, engines and other working models are outstanding favourites.

The first important point is therefore that the toy must be suited to the stage of development and must serve a purpose. Toys that are well constructed should be bought; cheap, flimsy toys are dangerous, and are also so easily broken that they encourage habits of destruction. Fast colours, no dangerous beads or pieces that can be swallowed, washable woolly animals and rag dolls. Apart from these requirements, the toys should be inexpensive and simple, and should be good in colour, form and design. Toys should be few in number; profusion leads to lack of concentration, and encourages destructive tendencies and fatigue. The child should have an easily accessible place of his own in which to keep his toys, and should be encouraged to put them away after use.

He should also have enough space in which to play, for his play should be taken seriously,

and something in the process of being built should not be swept away because mother needs the table for dinner. As far as possible, children should have furniture to suit their size—a table, chair, armchair and chest of drawers. Imagine the thrill of the six-year-old, beginning to do his letters, in possessing his own roll-top desk like daddy's!

I have seen little black children in South Africa who had never seen or possessed a toy, using odd bits of stuff they had picked up, to satisfy the instinct for material needed for growth. Toys should be chosen to fill the needs of the child, not because they are pleasing or amusing to adults. A finished project such as a whole farm is not as satisfying as a few parts of the farm that have to be added to, to make the whole. A complete dolls' house is not much fun; it is the making and the furnishing of the house that provides the fun. As in all life, it is the process of arriving that is more enjoyable

than the accomplished arrival. Mothers know how children at a certain stage write and draw on the walls, hammer nails in where they should not, saw bits off cherished pieces of furniture, cut up garments. These are not symptoms of a destructive nature, but of a lack of the right kind of material necessary to children's growth. Every child needs a hammer and nails and something into which to hammer nails.

Larger material is used nowadays for small children than was formerly the case. There are large, light bricks that may be used to construct a house or shop or boat that can actually be played in, as shown on the previous page and on page 141 of the November issue.

Adults must refrain from the temptation to use the playthings themselves. This does not, of course, preclude occasional suggestion; but it is most important that children should be encouraged and allowed to use their playthings in their own way and alone or with other children. In a group, a toy project may be used to teach such things as need for care in crossing a street, or the rules of traffic control.

Children do not care long for toys that are purposeless. The test of the value of a toy is the durability of its interest over a whole period of growth, and its constant use. A mechanical toy of itself is of little lasting interest, but a child who is building a city from blocks and boxes may want a mechanical tram as part of the city transport system.

As far as possible, it is best to let children choose their own toys, or make lists of what they want when they are old enough to do so. Choice of books presents many of the same problems. So often the age of the child and the stage he has reached are not sufficiently understood. It is an excellent arrangement in a shop when toys and books are arranged according to stage by an expert as a guide to potential buyers. Unfortunately, the training of assistants in toy and book departments has not often included a knowledge of children's needs as it has at Macy's Stores, New York City, where a trained psychologist, Miss Virginia Wise (whose article, *Playthings*, appears on page 180 of this issue) is employed.

Cover Competition

The present design on the cover of the *New Era* is the original work of one of Professor Cizek's art pupils in Vienna. The intention is to employ this same design for six months, and then to employ different designs, also the original work of children, making use probably of four designs during a year. The Editor would be very glad, therefore, if parents and teachers would submit suitable original designs in colour, from *children up to and including the age of sixteen*, accompanied by the name and address of the child. Designs submitted cannot be returned and will be held to be the property of the *New Era*.

A PRIZE OF ONE GUINEA WILL BE AWARDED
FOR EACH DESIGN CHOSEN

This Competition will close on 1st April 1931

The Editor hopes very much that designs will be submitted from all over the world, so that the original child art of different countries may be represented. Designs should be sent to the Editor, *New Era*, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1, and the envelope marked 'Cover Competition'.

An Analysis of the New Education

L. ZILLIACUS

Member for Finland of the International Council of the New Education Fellowship

IT is surely beyond doubt that Abbotsholme and the only four years younger Bedales were pioneer new schools as early as the nineties of last century. The New Education Fellowship, which traces its birth to the year 1915, cannot therefore lay claim to having played a part in initiating the new school movement, however great its service to this movement may since have been. The magnitude of these services is attested by the rapid growth in the influence and membership of the Fellowship and in the attendance at its conferences.

Parallel with this growth is the expansion in the number of new schools and of educators interested in the movement and anxious to obtain fuller information about it. But if someone were to ask me: 'What is the new education? Can you not give its fundamental doctrine?' I should reply, 'I can't. I can't any more than I can define, e.g. a Corot painting. I can show you some Corots, I can point out certain of their characteristics. But I can't give you the body of doctrine that has issued in Corot's creations for the simple reason that Corot did not start from a body of doctrine. A work of art isn't made that way. In this respect at least, education is also a work of art. A great educator may formulate theories about education, I admit. But I know of no school doing pioneer work and bearing the impress of vitality, which does not seem to me to be in large measure feeling its way under the guidance of intuition rather than merely applying consciously held doctrine. The new education in practice has not all derived from a common and agreed body of theory, and that is just why it is remarkable and inspiring that those who practise it should find this 'fundamental harmony of attitude' in each other when they meet. Hence, if we wish to understand the new education, we must set about it as we should with the Corots: we must first study specific examples and through these seek to catch a glimpse of what lies behind.'

If my interlocutor still wished to pursue the matter, I would therefore take or send him to visit schools or, failing this, induce him to read and digest written accounts of specific new schools and new school methods, e.g. Decroly, Montessori, Winnetka, Dalton, Project. A few more theoretically-minded might, however, want to pursue further the question, 'What is the New Education?' These would, then, subject their experiences to analysis and interpretation. I do not believe any two of them would arrive at exactly the same result. But I believe the results of each might prove interesting and even valuable to other inquirers. In the hope that this may be so, one attempt at such an analysis is given below.

If we study a sufficient number of new schools, preferably in different countries, we shall, I think, find the following characteristics standing out as high points in the general survey.

1. *Activity*.—Children in new schools are active to a degree unknown in the older type of school. This characteristic is so obvious as to be considered by many to be the beginning and end of the new school movement.

2. *Freedom*.—The wide measure of freedom accorded children in new schools need hardly be laboured: freedom to move about, talk, choose between alternatives, freedom from formality and external restriction of many kinds. Even this characteristic has so impressed many outsiders as to seem to them to be the all-in-all of the new movement. Indeed, one of the commonest denunciations levelled at the new school (unjust, of course, in the vast majority of cases) is that there the children simply do as they please.

3. *Creative Activity*.—One of the most striking characteristics of new schools is the great amount of creative work done by their pupils, and this creative activity is by no means confined to certain set times and places: they draw, paint, model, dramatize, act, write, compose, and make things as a part of their work

in almost every branch of study.

4. *Social Activity*.—The earliest new schools were generally boarding schools, where an ever-increasing share of the daily work of the community fell to every child as it progressed through the school. In a day school the communal work is not so extensive, but there is a good deal of it, and in new schools it is the children who do it. Even in their studies, children in new schools are constantly helping each other, discussing with each other, and engaging in co-operative tasks. The studies themselves are frequently given a social bent. Some form of self-government is commonly to be found.

These four common characteristics are, I think, the first to strike a visitor. Three further characteristics are:—

5. *Individual Treatment*.—Activity, freedom, and spontaneous creative work are possible only with a considerable degree of elasticity in methods, with tolerance for individual differences and, indeed, utilization of individual gifts.

In new schools one sees this elasticity, and this utilization as well as its corollary, special attention paid to individual needs and difficulties.

6. *Child Study*.—An interest in psychology with its concomitant study of the child. Child study may, indeed, bulk very large in the school, as e.g. in certain American schools, where measurement of physical, intellectual, emotional and other traits and filling in of exhaustive *questionnaires* quite evidently takes much of the time of both teachers and parents.

7. *Co-operation with Home*.—A close contact between home and school is characteristic of a large and increasing number of new schools. In most, it takes the form of keeping the parents in sympathy with the aims of the school and securing concerted action over specific problems, but in some schools it goes further and seeks to draw the parents into the daily life of the school and use their aid both in planning the work of the school and in carrying it out.

What, then, are the aims and conception of method that issue in the activity, freedom, creative activity, social activity, emphasis on physical care, and the three subsidiary characteristics (individual treatment, child study, and co-operation with the home) of the new schools?

There is a fundamental difference in aim here between the new and old. The old school had a static aim; the new has a dynamic. 'Maximum all-round growth', Dr. Harold Rugg has called the aim of education. Let us—merely for purpose of study—subdivide this aim into contributory aims.

What part or aspect of the general aim has resulted in the activity school? Beyond doubt, one aim behind this bustling activity is the *acquisition of knowledge*, but the child in the new school is 'learning by doing' rather than by absorbing, and this because the new school aims at knowledge in a somewhat different sense from the old. In the first place, rote knowledge is regarded as inadequate; in the second place, knowledge is not chiefly valued for its own sake but rather as a part of a wider aim—that of increased powers. The child is not only to know *what* (facts) but to know *how* (to do something). We can therefore describe the chief aim behind the activity of the learner in the new school as that of *developing* (in a broad sense of the word) *intelligence*.

Children in new schools are given so much freedom in order to foster growth of inward or self-discipline, with the necessary sense of responsibility coupled with power of independent judgment and initiative.

Creative activity is perhaps the most original contribution the new movement has made to education. The new schools have discovered that the creative urge is common to all children. The object is not to turn all children into artists, but to develop the artist faculty in each as part of his or her 'maximum all-round growth'.

The aim behind the social activity of the new school is to enable the child to find satisfaction through the channels of citizenship for the inborn urge to be one among his fellows and yet to count for something in himself.

Reuniting the strands we have artificially separated, we may say that the characteristics noted in the new schools indicate that their aim is to develop all the different sides of the child so as to enable him to grow into a strong, well-balanced personality.

One principle of method in the new school movement is *to regard each child as a unique individual and treat it as such*. A second principle is what we may call *the principle of whole-*

ness. It has not been an easy task to disentangle the different components of the aim of educating the whole child, precisely because of this principle. The work is so planned that all these sides of his nature are fostered simultaneously, or at least, that the growth of none of them is hindered. The new educator realizes that he is always dealing with the whole child, and that every part of the child's being is in some measure taking part in and being affected by everything that the child does. The attempt to bring home and school into closer harmony is also an expression of this principle. So, too, is the common practice of centres of interest (projects) and of close co-operation between teachers of different subjects. The child's experiences cannot be kept in isolation from each other; the new school seeks to make them such that they support and fructify each other.

Finally, the methods of the new school are obviously influenced by *faith in child nature*. The large measure of freedom granted, the readiness of the teacher to follow directions given by the children, the reliance on reason and goodwill rather than compulsion, the conscious effort of the teacher to remain in the background and avoid dominating the scene, all can at least partly be explained by faith in the natural tendencies of the child. The new educator feels that he can afford to be patient and tolerant, secure in the conviction that the very self-same tendencies that have gradually built up human society are operating in the younger generation. The teacher's task, then, is rather to provide the environment in which these tendencies are stimulated and find means of development than to mould his charges or forcibly implant something in them according to pre-arranged plan. We may summarize the new education thus: its aim is to aid the child to a well-balanced, vigorous growth; its method is guided by a profound respect for child nature.

I believe that we have touched the bedrock of new educational doctrine, yet I feel that our description of the new education lacks something essential. After all, schools have not been founded by principles but by human beings.

The ultimate explanation of both the principles we have found and of everything else in new education, is to be found in the soul of the new educator. I think it might be helpful to

explore in some measure this fascinating territory. Doing so, it seems to me we find two powerful tendencies, which together explain much of what we have outlined above.

We find first of all that the new educator is an *idealist* in the popular sense of the word. Idealism is, I know, a dangerous term to use or misuse. I shall not attempt to define it, but only to hint at certain expressions it may take. The idealist—at least the new educator brand—feels that there are things more worth while than his own personal security and material success, and these generally quite vaguely defined claims have his loyalty above all else. Devotion to spiritual ends is a common term for this loyalty, and it is my belief that a feeling of belonging to the great human family and a desire to serve human civilization make up together one of the dominant factors in the soul of the new educator.

If service in the cause of humanity is, as I believe, the supreme conative factor in the new educator, an artist's view of life is the supreme cognitive factor. It is this artist's view that at bottom explains the new educator's respect for the individual over and against systems, methods and theories, and that keeps him as an idealist from seeking to impose his ideals on others. It is this view that makes him see always the whole child and not scientific dissection products. It is, of course, this view that has led to the discovery of the creative urge in children. And it is this view that makes possible the artist-teacher, who is sensitive to values not yet expressed in words or fitted into systems, who keeps his eye open for the unexpected and unknown, and who intuitively understands children.

There is another factor in the new educator, which at first sight seems in contradiction to his artistic approach to life, and which, indeed, may be so. This is the scientific bent that has led to scientific child study as a characteristic part of the new school movement. This bent may have killed the artist in some teachers, but has undoubtedly been of help to others, and thoroughly justifies its existence. After all, there is a great deal of exact knowledge to be had about human nature, and the artist-teacher has need of as much of this knowledge as he can obtain.

On Making Things too Easy

ALDOUS HUXLEY

CHILDREN should be happy—we are all agreed on that. But in their laudably humanitarian desire to see that they are happy many 'advanced' educationists seem to forget that they should also be intellectually efficient and well equipped with knowledge. The distinguishing mark of too many modern systems of education (not, of course, of all) is that they fail to teach the child as much as he might reasonably be expected to learn. When you meet a boy who knows little Latin, less Greek, and none of his multiplication tables, you may hazard a guess that he has been brought up at an 'advanced' school.

In so far as modern educational theorists underestimate the importance of purely intellectual attainments, I think that they are wrong. They have, it seems to me, carried their humanitarianism too far. In their anxiety not to inflict hardship on the child, they have neglected a part of their duty as teachers. For it is not enough that children should be happy; it is not even enough that they should grow up into virtuous citizens. Virtue without knowledge and intellectual efficiency is but a poor, inadequate possession. True, knowledge and intellectual efficiency cannot be had without effort, and effort is painful; to have these goods, children must be made to sacrifice a certain amount of their happiness. But the sacrifice is worth making, must be made. And it is worth making not only for the sake of the intellectual, but also for the moral goods to be gained thereby. For it is a poor kind of virtue that has not been trained in the school of effort and sacrifice.

'Advanced' schools (and in this respect almost all American schools are on the 'ad-

vanced' side) seem to be haunted by the notion that everything is too difficult. 'Poor children'! (A misplaced humanitarianism causes the voice to tremble with emotion.) 'Poor children! this sort of thing is much too hard for you.' And so the difficulties are either circumvented, or else merely shirked and postponed. Arid wastes of grammar and arithmetic which we used to cover in a term are now crossed in easy stages and with endless pauses on the way for rest and refreshment, so that the journey takes four or five times as long as it took in the past. True, our march was more or less of a forced march; we worked under pressure. But I do not remember it doing us any great harm; and anyhow, we knew the grammar and the arithmetic. Which was the important thing—or so the unreformed educationists believed. But for the most humanely advanced educationists of to-day mere knowledge of grammar and arithmetic are of secondary, almost negligible importance. All that matters is that children should be happy and should 'express themselves freely'. The minimum of pressure should be applied to the poor little things and the pain of making efforts should, as far as possible, be spared them. In schools which are only partially 'advanced', the efforts which children are to be excused from making are exclusively intellectual efforts. To give a boy a headache by making him work too hard is a crime; but if he gets heart disease by going in too violently for athletics, it is only an unfortunate accident.

A rational scheme of education should combine the best points of the 'advanced' with the best points of the older systems. There can, of course, be no reversion to the barbarities and

severities of the older schools. Children must be happy. But their happiness must not be the slack and flabby happiness of those who are never forced to make efforts, but are brought up always to take the line of least resistance. The excessive humanitarianism of 'advanced' educational theory must be abandoned, and along with it the modern disparagement of purely intellectual attainments. Children must become intellectually efficient and in order to become intellectually efficient they must make efforts, even if the making be painful, even if they have to make them under pressure from without. The idea that things are too difficult is radically

mischievous. It is also psychologically false; for childhood is the time when intellectual efforts are least difficult to make, when we learn with the greatest facility, when we have (if the tendency is not discouraged) a kind of passion for knowledge, an intellectual earnestness which few adults ever recapture. It is the business of the teacher to exploit these childish tendencies and talents in the interests of that intellectual efficiency, the attainment of which is one of the chief aims of education. The too-humanitarian 'advanced' educationists who try to make things easy for children are missing opportunities which will never recur.

The League of Nations in Schools : The Glittering Sword

C. W. JUDD

WITH the assistance of their masters, the boys of the Altrincham County High School have produced a series of cinema films, including a Scout Film which is already well known. Their latest production is a two-reel film, 'The Glittering Sword', which, without pointing to any very definite conclusion, manages to present in a vivid and interesting manner to children some of the psychological problems of war and peace and disarmament.

The story is one of a boy king who craves the glittering sword of invincible power, and a peasant lad who sets out to find it, hoping for a great reward. There is plenty of romance, adventure, pageantry, magic and humour, and there are no tedious patches. The setting is cunningly contrived. Some of the scenes are made by the boys in their own school studio and others are laid in most attractive countryside.

Applications should be made in the first instance to the League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, S.W.1.

The Union's own teaching film, 'The

World War and After', remains as popular as ever. It is a four-reel film intended to follow a course of preparatory lessons in history and geography classes and to lead up to further lessons on some of the problems of international organization to which it is an introduction. By arrangement with local Education Authorities and schools it has already been shown to well over half a million children in Great Britain. Recently it was shown with equal success in Finland and in Switzerland, and the Governing Body of the Saar territory is considering the possibility of adapting it for regular use in its schools.

A detailed account of experiments conducted with this film in Great Britain and in other countries has recently appeared in the Review of the International Educational Cinematographic Institute established at Rome under the auspices of the League of Nations. The place of the film in international education is becoming increasingly clear and the next development is likely to be a series of one-reel films for classroom use.

The Omnipotent Babe—I

PAUL BOUSFIELD

Author of 'The Omnipotent Self', 'Sex and Civilization', 'Functional Nervous Diseases', etc.

(The following article is composed of extracts from a book under the above title to be published later by Dr. Bousfield. Further articles based on the book will follow)

THE NATURE OF EARLY TRAINING

THERE is a general idea that the first two years of a child's life are not extremely important. There is a yet more general idea that the first few days and weeks of its life are of no account at all educationally, and during that time the parent is content to get as much pleasure as possible from the possession of the child, and to gratify the desires of the baby at every infantile cry. Yet no greater mistake has ever been made. We are content to pay our university professors a thousand pounds or more a year. We regard their teaching as of extreme importance. We pay the child's nurse fifty pounds a year, and regard her knowledge of psychology as unimportant. Yet, to attain the ideal in character and happiness, exactly the reverse situation should obtain, for the training of the child in the first year of its life is quite as important as the training in the twentieth year, for its character has its unalterable foundations laid in these early days and it is ultimately its *character* that will carry it through all its difficulties or leave it a miserable failure in life—in spite of all the professors in the world.

It is true that the new-born infant has little intelligence, but it has much *feeling* of a rudimentary or primitive kind, and its character and characteristics depend most upon the development and control of its early emotions and feelings. Its habits are learned and its character is formed frequently in spite of its intelligence. They are imposed upon it under stress of emotion, not by words but by the activities of those surrounding it, which from the moment it is born it unconsciously observes and assimilates. How many mothers realize that in the first week or so of the child's life they are really placing it

upon the path *from which it can never return*? Maybe the child is fretful for a week or two. They think it no harm to rock it, soothe it, cuddle it, and feed it as soon as it utters its little cry. Yet in these first weeks, by doing so, or by not doing so, they have inevitably directed the child into a certain path in life, for its good or its ill.

Since Darwin discovered so much about heredity we have been inclined to overstress it in many respects. We have learned to ascribe to heredity characteristics of both mind and body which we could not otherwise explain. It has been an easy method of dealing with such matters, and it has unconsciously relieved parents and teachers of a vast amount of responsibility and painstaking. Unless we are very wide-awake to our own tendencies, we automatically take the path of least resistance in child-rearing as in other matters. We do not consider nervousness, for instance, or *too* vivid an imagination, which causes a child never to tell the truth if a lie will do as well, to be the parent's fault: the child has no doubt inherited the unhappy tendency. The parent makes haste to train the child in the ways of truthfulness. Unconsciously, through ignorance, however, the parent had first trained the child to be neurotic, or to be a liar, and then sought to eradicate his own mistakes by punishing the child! Environment is the essential source of character, and heredity plays a comparatively smaller part.

The ideas imposed upon the extremely young are those which remain fixed throughout the rest of their life. Two things appear to be necessary for the most effective imposition of ideas. In the first place, *there must be an absence of intellectual criticism*. In the second place, *they must be im-*

posed under conditions in which feeling is present. Such a condition of affairs is entirely infantile. Immediately after birth, the new-born baby's feelings are played upon, stimulated by one person or another, and for the first year or two it is little else but a primitive creature, living in a world of feelings. The conditions are such, then, as to fulfil completely the requisites for the reception of every suggestion which is conveyed to it, not merely by word of mouth, but by touch, movement, sight, or sound. The child of five has all the essentials of its character already formed; anything that takes place after that age is merely a modification or guiding of the already formed characteristics in special paths.

Unfortunately, it is not what parents *teach* their children in these first five years which is forming the child's character; it is the 'unconsidered trifles'. Quarrels, for instance, between the parents, anxious or depressed mothers, over-attention to the action of the child's bowels, over-solicitude for its comfort when it cries, the method of washing it, the manner of putting it to sleep, the apparently trivial environment in which it lives all day—these things are forcing the child into very definite paths for later life. I may here state with advantage that the method of reaction of the child to the guidance of the parent largely depends on the predominance of the love or hate of the child for its parent at any particular moment.

It may surprise readers that I should suggest the presence of hate, but hate in some form or other is invariably present whenever love is also present, although the hate may be repressed from consciousness and unrecognized. Let us say that the child of six years, i.e. after the chief characteristics have been formed, upsets a bottle of ink on the tablecloth, in the presence of its mother. The mother may look pained, may utter an exclamation of distress, but may say nothing to the child itself. If the child be very fond of its mother, at that particular period, the suggestions conveyed by the mother's demeanour will react upon the child, who will dislike very much the feeling that it has caused its mother annoyance, and it will in future attempt to be more careful because it loves its mother. But should it at that period of its life have repressed feelings of irritability towards the mother, it will be likely that the suggestion of pain on the mother's

face and in her expression will stimulate the child unconsciously to react in exactly the reverse way, and cause it to upset the ink whenever it can do so under favourable conditions, and we shall speak of it as 'naughty' or 'obstinate'. Thus the same stimulus may cause a reaction of the child in two opposite directions, according to its attitude towards the parent. That attitude, however, has been entirely created by the parent in the earlier years of the child's life. It has been created by the unconsidered environment into which the child has been born. For the parent, well-meaning though he or she may be, has been attempting to educate the child through its intellect, and has neglected the education which is carried out by suggestion under the influence of emotion.

THE UNCONSCIOUS

I have several times used the term 'unconscious'. Let me now say a few words on the subject of the unconscious.

We frequently speak of seeing a problem with the mind's eye, and the term, though a popular one, is far from being unscientific. With the material eye we see clearly the object in the centre of the field of vision, and while we gaze at this object we can still see other objects surrounding it and further from the centre, though not so clearly. If we apply this example to the mental field of view, by gaining an insight into the conscious, we shall realize something of what is meant by the unconscious. The mind's eye is continually focussing its attention on the field of consciousness, whereon are displayed ideas, meanings, emotions, and the like. At any given moment our consciousness is extremely limited, and the vast amount of memories, ideas, emotions and meanings accumulated during our lifetime are nowhere in the field of view of the mind's eye.

Like the material eye, the mind's eye can be turned from one idea in the field of vision to another. By a further effort we can change our field of vision. By means of a special technique we can even bring things into the field of consciousness which could never otherwise have been seen. But there yet remains a vast quantity of memories and accumulated mental material which, though it has been registered

within the mind, may never again be brought into the field of consciousness. We see then that, comparatively speaking, the 'unconscious' represents the vast collection of mental material which exists somewhere within us, but which is not at any given moment displayed to the mind's eye in the field of consciousness. Generally speaking, however, we limit the term 'the unconscious' to those ideas, and their attached meanings and emotions, which we cannot bring to consciousness by a voluntary and easy effort, i.e. by turning the mind's eye from one field of consciousness to another equally accessible.

Many matters are beyond the field of vision, but, and this is of extraordinary importance, as they approach the field of vision from far distances, they appear to gather energy, and to reclothe themselves with the emotions which originally accompanied them. And this energy and these emotions demand an outlet, even though the material to which they are attached remains unconscious. Hence may arise feelings of joy or sadness without visible cause. Hence, also, apprehensions, fears, obsessions, and habits of unknown origin. Conflicts arise, which we do not recognize as conflicts. This leads us to consider, shortly, what we mean by the energy of ideas.

As examples, the idea of jealousy has possessed enough energy to drive people half across the world in order to take their revenge. The idea of praise has driven many a lazy person to work hard in spite of himself. The idea of steam lifting a kettle lid is said to have inspired Watt with the energy to devise the steam-engine. There are crude and vivid examples of the energy of ideas, but for every such there are thousands of lesser ones acting within each and all of us every day, causing mild emotions whose origin we do not know or consider, and giving us a gentle urge to do or not to do various little commonplace acts.

It remains for us to consider two other elements of the unconscious, viz. complexes and

conflicts. Complexes are groups of ideas which are associated together to form a composite whole, of which all, or a part, are outside the field of consciousness. The effect of these on our opinions and actions is not recognized in consciousness. The strongest force is possessed by those ideas which tend to the self-respect and self-aggrandizement of the individual, and those which have been inculcated and strongly energized in infancy. Thus, complexes of savagery or moral perversion have been either inherited or acquired by most of us, but ideas inculcated by moral environment in infancy, and ideas of self-respect and self-preservation, possess for the most part much more energy, and make those complexes 'intolerable' to consciousness.

The complexes which are kept from consciousness in this way are not necessarily of a non-moral nature, for the infant will often treat perfectly normal material as though it were intolerable if the emotional environment has been such as to suggest to its mind that it is so. Hence, parents with extreme prejudices or very 'hard and fast' ideas may, by their emotional attitude towards trivial acts of the child, or towards its environment, succeed in giving a completely wrong emotional charge to the child's newly emerging ideas, and thus warp its normal characteristics.

Many ideas associated with the repressed intolerable idea are also dragged beneath the surface, and hence they also form part of the complex to which they are associated. Occasionally, the inculcated ideas concerning self-preservation and self-respect may not be charged with sufficient energy to keep the associated ideas from consciousness, and the emotion of the hidden idea may appear to belong to the associated idea which reaches consciousness.

I do not propose to say more concerning the unconscious. It is only necessary for readers to have a general idea of the meaning of the terms, so that they may understand when we come to deal with particular instances.

Musical Education

ROBERT MAYER

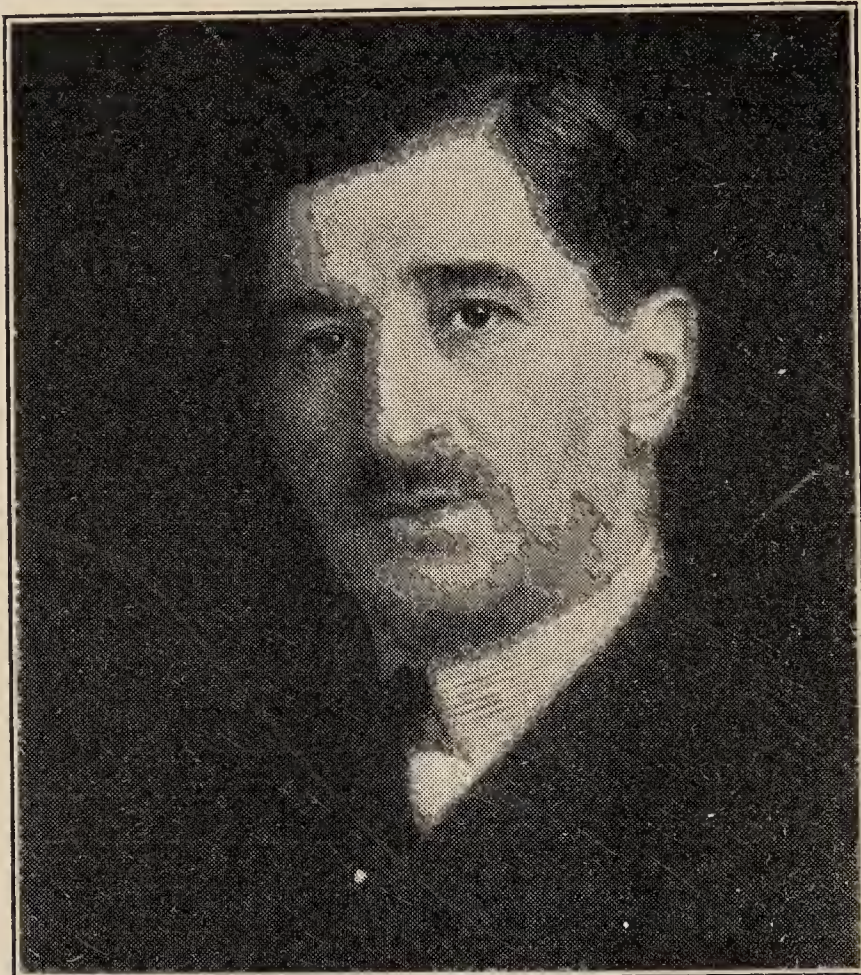
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THE *New Era*, which stands for liberal education, includes among its many points of contact that of intellectual sympathy, the capacity to entertain other people's point of view, to think the best of its neighbours, and thus aid in the fight against intolerance. The bases of such intellectual sympathies are obviously many and varied, the most powerful being, in my opinion, literature and art, especially the art of music. Science sharpens the intellect and teaches us to think clearly; it has thus a somewhat utilitarian bias, but a liberal education also includes elements which are non-utilitarian and spiritual. The Greek considered that the education of the free citizen should be contained mainly within two broad divisions:

gymnastics for the body and music for the mind, music serving principally for amusement, culture, intelligent recreation and purification, the latter resolving itself into a capacity for forgetting petty concerns and striving to acquire the art of living on the plane of universal experience. It is not my wish to chronicle the changes which time has wrought in liberal, and particularly musical education, since those far-off days; nor, coming nearer to our time, to explain why the advent of the Hanoverians or of industrialism dethroned music from the position which it occupied during the Elizabethan era. I prefer dealing with the present and the future.

The claims on the attention of educationists are so manifold that some of them may not be aware of the growing activity in musical education, particularly in elementary schools. It is true that to many of the teachers in these

schools musical instruction still denotes merely singing; comparatively few regard its wider scope, which comprises the playing of an instrument, as well as rudimentary knowledge of harmony, instruction in musical history, hearing of good concerts, and other subjects. But even so it must be admitted that the time now spent on music in the elementary schools compares favourably with that devoted to the subject 30 years ago; and likewise favourably with the position in the majority of secondary



Mr. Robert Mayer

schools where the concentration on examinations allows of little place for music, although it is admitted as a subject.

This slow rate of progress suggested to me that a new method was needed to bring about such an advance as would be of a lasting nature; and it seemed to me that this could be best secured by instruction in music's most ideal and attractive form: an orchestral concert. For this purpose I therefore started eight years ago 'Orchestral Concerts for Children' which have for their object: to give children the chance of hearing the finest music, performed by the best artists and under ideal conditions; to encourage similar concerts all over the country;

to make the fullest educative use of an agency which in the past has not been sufficiently recognized ; to create early in life the habit and desire to attend concerts where the world's masterpieces are performed ; and finally, to make music a factor in daily life, thereby adding to life's interest and adornment.

For the sake of those readers who do not know of them, I will explain briefly that my concerts differ from ordinary symphony concerts by reason of the fact that the conductor explains during the concert the instruments and their particular functions in the building up of the orchestra, as well as the compositions performed. As nearly every child is innately musical, I find that the appeal in hearing these masterpieces is instantaneous, and judicious elucidation and instruction enhance understanding and love. The finest forms of musical expression are, by such concerts, conveyed in the most vital form to the youthful hearers, many of whom are encouraged to take up the study of one of the instruments which hold for them so much wonder and magic and thus turn into active amateurs, the backbone of a musical people. In these days of mechanization and passivity, activity in art is essential ; it spells virility. The aims of the concerts as defined above have been fully achieved, including the formation of school orchestras, the effect of which on the diffusion of music is as obvious as the help which the concerts afford to teachers, by providing them with a firm basis on which to build their music lessons, either by way of preparation or of subsequent instruction. The imagination of the child becomes stimulated and that great sensitive gift, the love and thirst for culture, for things spiritual, captures the child's mind and soul at the receptive age when impressions are bound to be lasting.

The movement dates back to 1923, when a few concerts were given to comparatively small audiences. This winter there are twenty-two concerts which will be spread over eight districts in London, and the audiences will, I anticipate, aggregate at least 40,000 boys and girls. They are the best propagandists for the cause of music, not only with their co-pupils and parents, but also directly and indirectly with their teachers and particularly with that important person, the head teacher, whose interest in

music is, unfortunately, often lacking. But since I began my effort things have greatly changed and for the better. For instance, the Middlesex, Tottenham and Surrey Education Committees have greatly assisted me in my task ; and last but not least, the Board of Education is now showing the keenest interest in the movement. As the outcome of my co-operation with the latter Department and with various authorities in Yorkshire, I am extending the movement to Leeds, where an inaugural concert will be held in December under the direction of Dr. Malcolm Sargent, who has been an ideal conductor and of invaluable aid in my concerts, practically since their inception. Judging by the success already achieved, I have no doubt that in years to come every orchestra and conductor in the country will give children's concerts ; some of them have already done it, though in a modified form. But until we imitate the Americans and Germans by granting state or municipal subventions to orchestras, their numbers and, therefore, their expansion, must remain comparatively limited ; thus, to only tens of thousands of children will there be opened up this new world of beauty, when it should be made available for millions. In the time to come, however, it is my conviction that the rapidly increasing number of concert-goers, recruited partly from those who have participated in this movement, must exert a beneficial influence on the defects in our orchestral conditions, and I also feel sure that the children so trained will succeed in broadening the outlook of those civic authorities with whom in the past arguments have failed.

As dealing with the position obtaining to-day, I am working on a scheme by which, in the absence of orchestras, children will have an opportunity of hearing concerts given locally by visiting instrumentalists, singers, quartets etc., an opportunity which in the past has generally been reserved for their more fortunate brothers and sisters attending public or private schools. The basic idea is that artists appearing in a country town, either at their own, or, say, a club concert, shall also give a concert for the children of that town and neighbourhood. With proper arrangements the artists would suffer only a minimum loss of time and ex-

penses, and thus could afford to play for something less than their ordinary fees, and being always generous they are likely to do so for the good of their art. Various musical societies are already actively supporting this scheme, which requires merely local organization to be put into action generally. Committees for this purpose are to be formed on which teachers, local councillors, and musical amateurs will be represented; their functions will be to distribute tickets of admission in schools, to draw education committees and others into the movement, and to make the usual arrangements for holding the concerts. It can, however, apply in the beginning only to those towns which possess suitable halls and which at present hold occasional first-class concerts. If this scheme appeals to any reader seeking for more information, I shall be happy to give details upon application.

It is but a commonplace to refer to the growing recognition of the fact that time-worn methods in education must be transformed into new and vital ones, and that in the process of this rejuvenation cultural development should be of paramount importance. The present seems, therefore, the moment to secure for music its proper position in education; and it augurs well that efforts are afoot to increase the numbers and quality of music teachers through extensions in training colleges and other directions.

Thousands of years ago Confucius said: 'If there were more music in the world, there would be more politeness and less war'. The power of music is divine, and it behoves all educationists to utilize to the fullest extent this heaven-sent gift, and thereby enrich and beautify life.

Playthings

VIRGINIA WISE

Toy designer, adviser to the Toy Department staff, and adviser to buyers of toys, in R. H. Macy & Co.'s Stores, Thirty-fourth Street, New York City

THERE is a new trend in play and playthings. The success of playthings now depends not merely on whether they delight and amuse the child, but also on whether they encourage self-expression and lead to growth as well. Play for the young child does not mean that he is idly amusing himself; he is actually learning by experimenting with play materials, that is, exploring his environment and achieving new experiences. If we wish to induce the greatest enjoyment and learning, we must enable him, through our selection of play materials and guiding of play, to express himself and develop the capacities he is trying to manifest.

Let us study for a moment the psychological reasons which have guided the design and choice of playthings. While infancy presents an opportunity to furnish the child with specialized toys designed to awaken his senses, the pre-school age offers a much wider field and a much fuller opportunity for guiding intellectual and emotional development, and for

that reason has been the subject of a great deal of psychological research.

The small child's attention and energy are absorbed in developing a technique of observation and control of his immediate surroundings. He thinks and feels primarily through his own immediate experiences. The child of three especially seems to think through his muscles. Repetition and rhythm entrance him. He loves to pretend that he is galloping, skating, swinging to music. The activity and use of objects are his main concern. The importance of this motor phase in his experience emphasizes the need of concrete materials which he can handle, manipulate and construct with, as he cannot yet grasp things which are not physical or are not represented by sound or object. The young child also tends to personify his thoughts; when he thinks or says 'engine', he is likely to make the sound. When he observes an object he is likely to make some motion towards it and he likes to be answered in terms of motion.

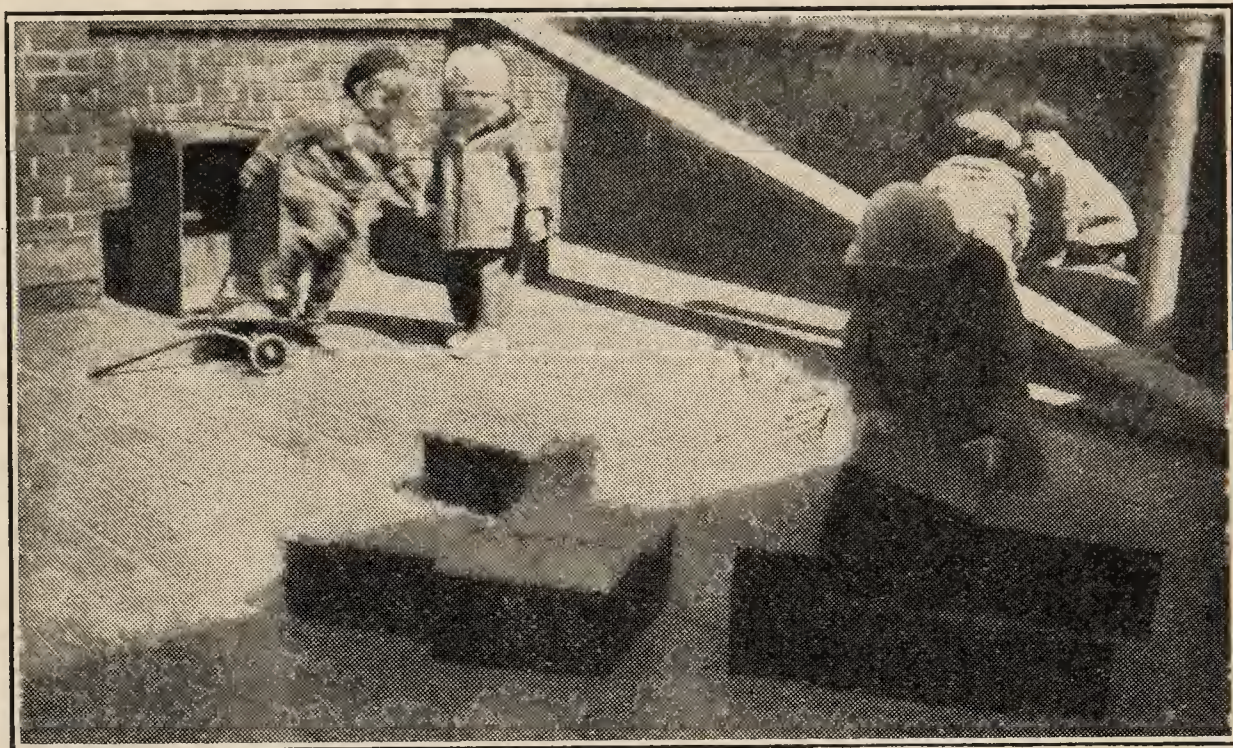
Another characteristic of this age period is that to the young child the familiar and amusing is the interesting, and it remains so until about seven years of age, when he becomes aware of the world outside his own immediate experiences. He points

out familiar things; he builds them with his blocks, he dramatizes them, and likes to hear stories about them. I mention this as there is a natural tendency for mothers to introduce fanciful legends to children before they are even four or five years old. This old custom can now be abandoned, for a great many playthings and stories have been developed to fill the gap and so avoid

inflicting the strange, the bizarre, and the unreal on infant minds that are not ready to receive them. We need to help the four- and five-year-old child especially to make new relationships with already familiar facts and to distinguish between reality and unreality. The tendency from even two years to eight years to personify and dramatize is very predominant, and can be satisfied with playthings which lend themselves to imitating adult activities and to imaginative play, when the child is able to do not only the things adults do, but also is master of the situation. Animals and figures for sand play and block building will lend much opportunity for dramatic play, such as a village, a farmyard, and many other interesting projects.

There is a class of playthings which is both inexpensive and easily obtainable; these toys have the outstanding advantage that they lend themselves progressively to the interests and abilities of successive ages. In fact, it seems as though some Providence has endeavoured to solve our play problems and made it possible for children to avail themselves of proper play materials which challenge and further their mental development without the consultation of a child psychologist or specialist in playthings.

A youngster would ordinarily struggle along successfully with the commonest of playthings such as a supply of paper and various coloured crayons, a box of sand, clay, boards and boxes, soft wood, hammer, and nails, and would prob-



Crude, Simple Material for Outdoor Play

ably grow to the ripe age of seven with his lack of modern toys in no way affecting his mental growth. If parents should supply him with a set of building blocks unpainted and of varying shapes, these blocks will serve as trains when he is three years old just as well as for bridges and skyscrapers when he is six or seven, and he will then most certainly have no reason to reproach his parents when he grows older for having disregarded his play requirements. Nowadays, however, children are so precocious and we are so proud of their abilities that a great variety of toys has been designed to bring out their finer sensibilities and further to a marked degree those special aptitudes which develop during childhood. In fact, parents who are sufficiently interested and have the necessary funds can by a proper and judicious selection of playthings not only enhance a liberal education, but will achieve a certain generalship in the home which no other means can bring. For when children are happy and well occupied, mischievous practices are negligible and a harmonious relationship in the household is ensured.

The infant up to the age of two is not included, as she would most assuredly chew the

crayons and swallow the nails. Nevertheless, play, and even education, begins with her random movements. Baby Susie likes bright-coloured rattles of red, orange, and yellow that attract her attention and encourage reaching, and, later, grasping. Hard celluloid rattles and balls, soft powder-puff animals, dolls, and flexible rubber toys satisfy her interest in feeling objects of varying textures while developing her sense of touch. Animals and dolls that squeak and objects that tinkle afford sounds to attract her ear, and through imitating these sounds she develops her voice. As she learns to grasp and shake a rattle, and feel that she has evoked a noise from it, she is learning her first lesson in mastery and manipulation of her surroundings. We might venture to say that she is learning an early kind of security and a feeling of power, achievement and independence. In fact, it is here that we begin to realize the importance of fitting the toy to the child's age so that she is able to do something with it, as only through doing something with materials can the young child make new discoveries. Balls, carts and animals on wheels are valuable for developing her larger muscles through pushing, pulling, and crawling.

The need of large playthings for the young child whose motor control is not yet well co-ordinated, is an important consideration. Large blocks, boxes, barrels, big stubby crayons are now available in the toy shops, for the old theory of tiny toys for tiny tots has been discarded. Larger materials which can be handled more easily and take less time to achieve an effect, are better suited to the young child whose span of interest and attention is short.

When Susie is two or three years old she begins to want to take things apart. It would be wise for parents to buy some of the new manipulative toys designed to satisfy this tendency. Then watches and clocks will not be dissected. Peg boards are available that vary from the large inch in diameter peg for the baby of a year to eighteen months to the eighth-inch peg for the child of four or five years. Peg boards are sold with beads to fit on and with which to work out designs. Little blocks in the shape of trees, bushes, houses etc., are available to fit on the peg boards, and for the making of villages. Carts with pegs, nests of twelve dolls,

eggs, boxes, and trays, block trains that interlock so that the cars can be changed about, take-apart pyramids with bright-coloured wood rings to put on and take off a rod and arrange according to colour and design, have been constructed. Because of Susie's tendency to investigate, she is often considered destructive, when in reality she is manifesting a healthy curiosity which should be encouraged. This class of toys not only helps to satisfy the desire to take apart, but also fosters a tendency to put together again, as these toys can be re-assembled easily in the same manner in which they are taken apart. In addition, these toys are made of wood so that they are more durable, and they are brightly coloured to satisfy the young child's interest in colour and design.

The intellectual side of our young Susie must not be forgotten. This leads to a very popular fallacy, i.e. that the destruction of magazines and books by young children is due to the destructive characteristic as mentioned above. It is more likely due to a lack of fine co-ordination of eye and hand. The child is entitled to picture books printed on rag, linenette, linen, or thick cardboard which will not tear easily when manipulated by clumsy little hands.

To develop the physical side of young Susie, things for pushing, pulling and lifting are important. There are wheelbarrows, large boxes and blocks, toy animals and figures of wood and metal for pushing and pulling. Susie will also enjoy running, galloping, skipping, balancing on a walking board, climbing a rope-ladder or jungle gym. The feeling of achievement and importance that comes from such activity, besides the joy in releasing energy, certainly suggest reasons for interest in physical activities.

Somewhere about the age of six or seven, Susie will seem to acquire a consciousness of others distinguished from herself. When she has adapted herself to her personal world she begins to reach out for experience in larger fields. She should be given opportunity to explore the primitive manner of making clothes, farming, and so on, which are more easily understood by the young child, and create a background and basis for learning later the more complicated processes. Primitive crafts such as dyeing cloth, hand-weaving, pottery

making, and simple peasant designing in painting and sewing, also constitute simple forms of activity for the young child and afford opportunity to experiment. Costumes for dramatizing simple stories, and housekeeping toys lend themselves to group play of young children. At six or seven years of age, games with some

interest in building and constructing. Encouragement is needed to prove to the child that she is making progress and that her efforts have been worth while.

Those who are teachers or who have dealt with the behaviour problems of children are aware of the frequent difficulties presented in

weaning a child from home to school. Susie, who has been given suitable play materials and has learned to use them constructively, will encounter familiar materials and activities in the nursery school or kindergarten, which gives her security at least with concrete materials. Having this element of security and satisfaction, she is more likely to make a quicker adjustment to the teacher, children, and general procedure. Obviously, too, if she has gained confidence in herself at



Large Material for Tiny Tots

competitive element, such as checkers, dominoes, lotto, ring toss and bean bag are enjoyed and afford opportunity for play with others.

What is the mother's chief duty while these processes and activities are going on? In our opinion, it is to allow Susie to use the materials to suit her interests. It is in this way that the child's spontaneous interests, so vital to her, are encouraged. The parent should aid her to discover in her playthings their own source of activity and possibilities. For example, when something is almost achieved by the child, the teacher or parent should be cautious not to put on the finishing touch. Help is frequently needed at the most difficult points and assistance is often valuable to avoid a lack of interest and over-fatigue, but if help is needed, she can arrange the situation so that the child makes the final stroke.

When Susie is three years old she will be able to use blocks for building trains and houses. The keen mother does not fail to show her unstinted admiration even if the train is only a row of blocks and the house has no door or roof. Lack of appreciation may lead to lack of in-

home through achievements in play, she will feel more self-confidence in general and be more secure in the nursery school or kindergarten. In carrying through activities suited to her abilities, she learns concentration, persistence, independence, ingenuity and invention in planning, and resourcefulness within herself. These characteristics are obviously desired of the older child but we have only recently realized how impressionable the child of pre-school age is.

We can also guide Susie's social adjustment. Rights of property, respect for others, and generosity can be taught the young child best through concrete play. An excellent illustration of this is to observe a nursery school group the first few days it assembles and then observe it several months later. The social adjustment attained is remarkable, especially in view of the fact that children at this age are not very socially inclined. It is also true that some children need the stimulation of other children for mental growth as well as for social growth, since by observing others play they learn much.

Children's Reading : II—Book Selection

MARGARET CAMPBELL

Deputy Librarian of the City Library, Oxford

WHAT *should* a child read ? and what *will* a child read ? are two questions which frequently confront the teacher and the librarian. Upon the satisfactory solution of this problem depend in a large measure the reading habits of the adult. Children who are allowed to have access to the more inane type of tale usually considered suitable for the very young, and the extremely silly type of school story, only develop later on into readers of fiction which has been aptly described by Aldous Huxley as 'dope'.

Reading for reading's sake has never seemed to me to be in itself an end worth aiming at. When so much of the reading matter of the present time is at the level it is, with the popular press and the cinema competing for the chief place in vitiating public taste, it seems time to pause and ask, Why do we want our children to acquire this fatally easy habit of reading ? Is it simply that they may be able to pass an evening superficially skimming the latest output of the fiction factory ? The spread of cheap printing and the development of Free Libraries have had many very beneficial results, but one responsibility they both must share—the popularization of the idea that the criterion to be used is quantity. A newspaper assesses its value at the number of papers sold, regardless of the influence, or lack of it, it wields. A librarian assesses his work at the number of books which have been borrowed, regardless of the type of book (within limits) that is being read. Reading was an art to be assiduously cultivated in the more leisured days of the past ; to-day that art is being rapidly lost.

Books for one of these four ends conduce
For wisdom, piety, delight and use.

Unless reading is going to fulfil its purpose of broadening and enriching life, it is useless to spend all the time and money that is spent (particularly in public libraries) on encouraging children to 'get the library habit'.

Opinion is sharply divided among librarians

as to whether children should be allowed to read anything, good, bad, or indifferent, with the hope that they will improve their taste as the years go by ; or whether children should have access to a selection of books, catholic in its scope and range, but nevertheless excluding the ephemeral and trashy. For myself, I hold the latter view.

No child should be expected to read a book which he finds dull, simply because it is a 'good' book—in any case the value of the book as literature is lost, any widening influence it might have brought into his life is gone, and often a distaste for reading is engendered. But it is equally the case that a child should not be encouraged to put a book down because it requires a little effort, and it is fatally easy to get into a habit of wanting an easy book, requiring no mental effort whatever. Parents and teachers can do a great deal to help by bringing out the interests of the book, explaining (where necessary) its background, and giving a little assistance over the initial plunge. It is a doubtful point whether any child will continue to read books 'beyond his years' (or quota of intelligence) as is often suggested. In any case I do not think it will do much harm ; the full implication of facts which are beyond him pass him by at the time, leaving only what can be assimilated. Any risk which may be run is better than to encourage the reading of books which are a stage or two below what should be the mental growth at the time.

It is extremely difficult to be definitive as to the ages at which children will read certain books. The homes they come from, the help and encouragement which they receive, the conversation they listen to, and their own individual idiosyncrasies all tend to make variations from the norm for each child. Observation of children's reading has shown me that children from elementary schools, who have little or no guidance in their reading at home, have neither the vocabulary nor the background

to enable them to enjoy books which other children at the same age, but with a different home and school influence, will read with pleasure.

The following is an attempt at a rough classification which has been proved to be true with a number of children using the junior department of a public library.

Under 10 Years of Age

Most children will read and enjoy fairy tales, folk tales and legends; this is also the time at which King Arthur, Robin Hood, and Roland are the heroes whose deeds form a never-ending source of delight. Animal stories, where the animals are personified, as in the *Just-so Stories* and *Brer Rabbit*, are popular, as also are nursery rhymes and jingles.

Some children remain in this group a long time, particularly children who like the escape from their natural life which the fairy tales afford. On the other hand, some children will never read fairy tales at all—they want something that is tangible and life-like.

It should be remarked here that it is most essential that all children's books should be well printed, with really good illustrations—the so-called illustrations in some children's books are worse than useless as far as the cultivation of the child's imagination is concerned, and in others the artistic level is so deplorable that the child is much better without them. For all small children the print should be large and clear, and the paper of the smooth non-shiny variety.

From 10-14 Years of Age

Up to eight or nine years there is not apparent a great deal of difference between the reading of boys and girls, but after that age there is noticeable a distinct differentiation. Boys have become interested in things—and they will read books on trains, ships and aeroplanes that gradually increase in difficulty, until at fourteen years a boy who began by being interested simply in trains, can speak with technical knowledge of the points of the various engines and systems of locomotion. Books on various hobbies begin to make their appeal, particularly to boys, but both boys and girls will spend hours looking up facts and verifying statements that

have a relevant bearing on their particular hobby. A boy at this stage makes very little real distinction between fiction and non-fiction, and in fact is often more interested in the latter than the former, particularly if there is no 'talking down' to him. With both boys and girls school tales are very popular for a while (though most boys realize how silly and unlife-like they usually are, much more quickly than do girls).

Adventure and escape are provided for by tales of Red Indians and cowboys, to begin with, leading up to books of historical romance such as those by Henty, Dumas, Conan Doyle and Stevenson. One would like to think that the great Waverley romances were popular, but the truth is, they have too often been spoilt by being taken for general class reading. However, it is gratifying to find that some children like them, and probably more would if they were introduced to the art of judicious skipping.

Girls at this age are more difficult to cater for than boys, and are more individual in their choice. Poetry certainly makes its appeal now, and plays when they can be acted. Biographies, if sufficiently well told, and without any suspicion of an obvious moral, have an appeal, and so have books on natural history and so forth. For stories they turn to *Little Women*, its sequels, some of Dickens (but rarely the ones with the robust type of humour such as *Pickwick Papers*), but chiefly school tales—and again school tales! It seems very difficult to get a girl beyond this stage once she has succumbed. Whether the story is about boys' schools, or girls' schools, whether the story is good (and how few really good ones there are!), bad, or indifferent, doesn't seem to matter. If the girl has access to this type of story, little can be done except to suggest that such books are extremely dull after the first one or two. Whether this is a commentary on so many of the schools of to-day, and whether with the spread of the new type of education this type of story will automatically disappear, I do not know. Once beyond this stage, however, girls begin to develop a liking for historical romances of the Orczy, Weyman type, rather than the Scott or Henty. Girl Guide books are also very popular. On the whole, they read much more fiction than boys of the same age, and are in-

clined to like wallowing in a mawkish sentimentality. Again, whether this is the result of the home or school atmosphere, and whether the same trait is observed in girls brought up on modern co-educational lines, I have had no means of judging, but I should imagine not.

Children of 14 Years and Over

The reading at this age is so individualistic that it is difficult to do more than indicate the broad lines which are followed. Boys continue to like practical books on railways, inventions, engineering and science. They have realized the help that books can be to them, and freely borrow books for their hobbies such as wireless, stamp collecting, scouting and woodcraft. Books of travel and adventure are popular, such as the works of Jules Verne, Buchan, Stevenson and Doyle. Detective stories seem to supply a need, and where these are not simply of the 'shocker' type, do no harm.

At this age, more perhaps than at any other, the previous training shows—a boy of 14 at a Public School (or its equivalent) has usually a far wider cultural background than a boy of the same age at an elementary school, and he would usually be ashamed to be seen reading what he would call 'kids' books'.

Books for boys at this age appear to be easier to find than books for girls, and girls will not read the boys' books to the extent they previously did. They are still much more interested in poetry than boys, and they begin to take an interest in what are usually known as the standard novels: the Brontës, George Eliot (*Adam Bede* and *Mill on the Floss* only), Jane Austen rarely, and Dickens quite frequently. Reade's *Cloister and the Hearth* and books by Hewlett (*Forest Lovers* and *Queen's Quair*), Hope (*Prisoner of Zenda*), Mason and Merriman, are all popular. With some girls the craving for excitement and adventure is apparently satisfied vicariously by tales of adventure and the more romantic historical novelists.

With girls, even more than with boys, great care must be taken at this age to prevent the constant reading of light novels, harmless,

though trashy, in themselves, but with a vitiating effect on the mind of the reader, insomuch that it becomes increasingly difficult to expend any mental effort on reading, and the creation of magazine readers is assured.

Boys and girls over fourteen years of age should, where possible, have access to a large collection of books, many of which are considered to be perhaps a little beyond them. It always seems to be a pity to limit the reading of an intelligent child to children's books. Now is the time for them to appreciate the fact that they will get out of a book only commensurately what they bring to it; and that the pleasure to be obtained from a so-called difficult book is out of all proportion to the initial effort made.

With regard to the choice of books for the adolescent, the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust have just published a classified and annotated guide to books for young readers, *Books to Read*. [See 'The Bookshelf', page 196 of this issue.] It contains lists of books on all subjects graded according to difficulty, and with full descriptive notes on each book; there is a long list of fiction suitable for boys and girls, from which first-class choice can be made. It is quite the most comprehensive book that has been issued on the subject, and should prove invaluable to the person trying to choose suitable books for boys and girls of from 14-16 years of age. A word of warning should, however, be given to those prospective readers of it who are not acquainted with the majority of the books. In a book intended to serve so many needs, catholicity and comprehensiveness had to be the keynote, but there are many books in this list only suitable for certain types of readers, and I cannot think that the experts who formed the editorial panel expected that any one school or club would require *all* the books. With that one reservation it is a most welcome tool in the selection of books for children and adolescents, a work which is of growing importance as junior libraries are increasingly being considered essential parts of both public libraries and schools.

The Odenwaldschule— after Twenty Years

PAUL GEHEEB

Founder of the School

TWENTY YEARS—is that a long span of time, or a short? It is long in terms of the struggle and effort that make up the life of an individual or a community—very short in terms of the development of an idea. For ideas endure longer than nations or individuals, and the idea from which sprang the Odenwaldschule was known to Plato and Pindar: γένοιο ὅτιος ἐσσί—become that which thou art! Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and all the great educators of the Occident were informed by this idea. But it was Goethe, in *Wilhelm Meister*, who interpreted it for us Germans.

One of the great prophets of German education was J. G. Fichte, who one hundred years ago inspired German youth with the spirit that Goethe had personified, urging them to strive after the highest that was in them. Herein, it seems to me, lies the true international value and work of the German people—to develop its national individuality according to Goethe's principles, and to co-operate in friendship with other peoples. Thus from the first day of its existence, the Odenwaldschule has striven to be both a German and an international school.

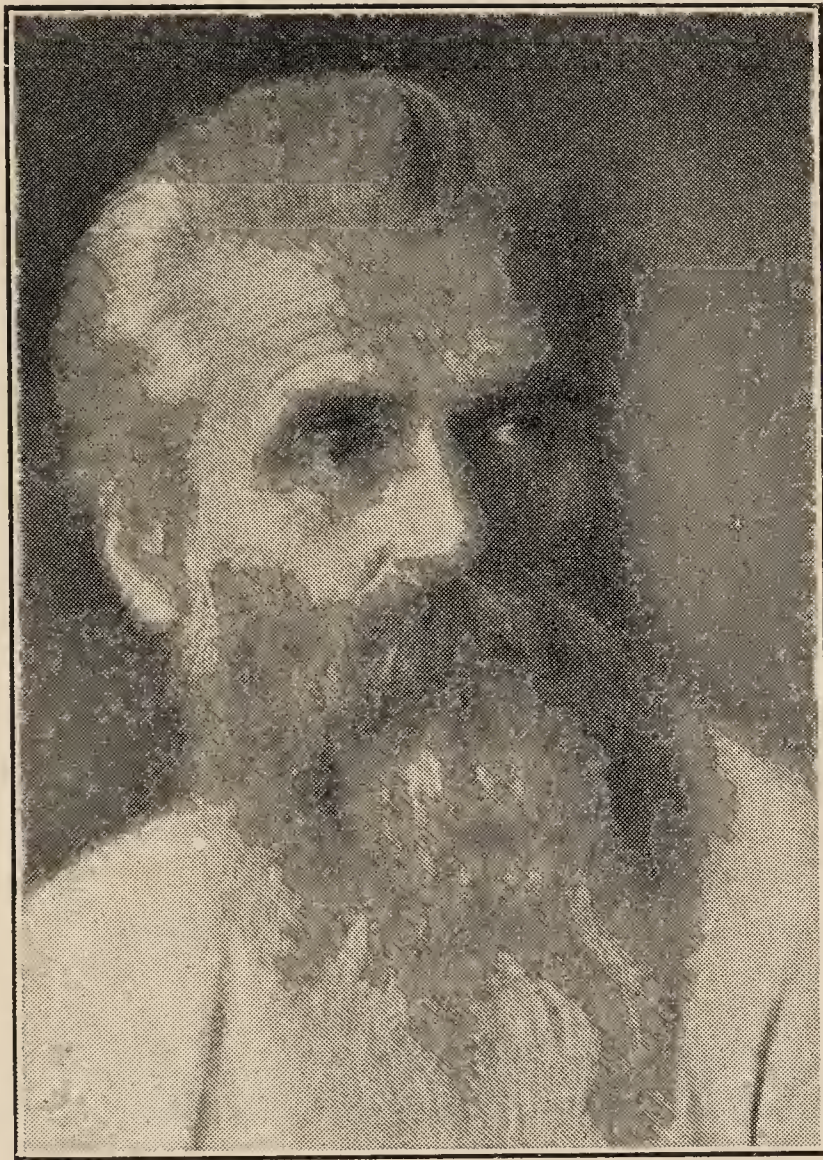
It was about the middle of the 1890's that Hermann Lietz and I became friends and together thrashed out our ideas on education. We had lived much in cities, and the penalties

man paid for civilization were heavy upon us. School reform as such did not interest us; what did interest us was mankind, and we followed the growing social-democrat move-

ment with the keenest interest. We were concerned with placing life on a new and healthier basis, and with reorganizing education from the beginning.

We believed that in a country boarding school, nourished by pure air, unhampered and unwarped, children would develop a true humanity; through cultural studies, the sciences and travel, growing boys and girls would learn the true condition of society, be made familiar with its trials and sorrows; the contrast between true humanity and the actual world as it is would be brought home to them. The young of each generation would be educated to be coura-

geous fighters; to withstand, if necessary, the stream of material and moral convention and fashion; to be masters of all implied by the term 'new'; to present a united front against the vices and depravities peculiar to their times; and to strive their whole lives long for the betterment of humanity. Each boy and girl in a country boarding school would learn to live as a trustworthy member of society in miniature, in order later to serve his turn as a citizen of the nation. Thus would youth ever free itself of the leading-strings of a previous generation and



Herr Paul Geheeb

further the development of human society as a whole.

Hermann Lietz, a man of action, soon made up his mind. In the spring of 1898 he opened his first country boarding school near Ilsenberg in the Harz mountains. Three and six years later he founded two others. The movement grew and strengthened, and weathered the great difficulties of the War years. To-day, some fifteen country boarding schools exist in Germany.

After working with Lietz for some years, and with the support and encouragement of my wife, I founded the Odenwaldschule in 1910, which differs from most of the other schools, especially Lietz's, in that it has been consistently co-educational. My school consists of 12 houses beautifully situated at the upper end of a rising valley in the Odenwald, amid hills, meadows, and woods. One hundred and eighty children (from three years of age up) and young people, of whom about one-third are girls, live in seven of the houses, in small groups that we call families, under the care of an adult or a married couple. About thirty trained men and women teachers live and work with this little crowd of children, and there are some forty others employed in the management, the household, the workshops, and the garden.

It is not easy to describe the structure of the community that has been building in the Odenwaldschule in the course of twenty years—a community in which two hundred and fifty persons, differing widely in age, live and work together inspired by Goethe's ideas of mutual understanding and help. Any comparison with a political common life is misleading; expressions such as 'children's republic', 'self-government', descriptive of the organization of the school commonwealth with the right to vote extended to young and old, necessarily give rise

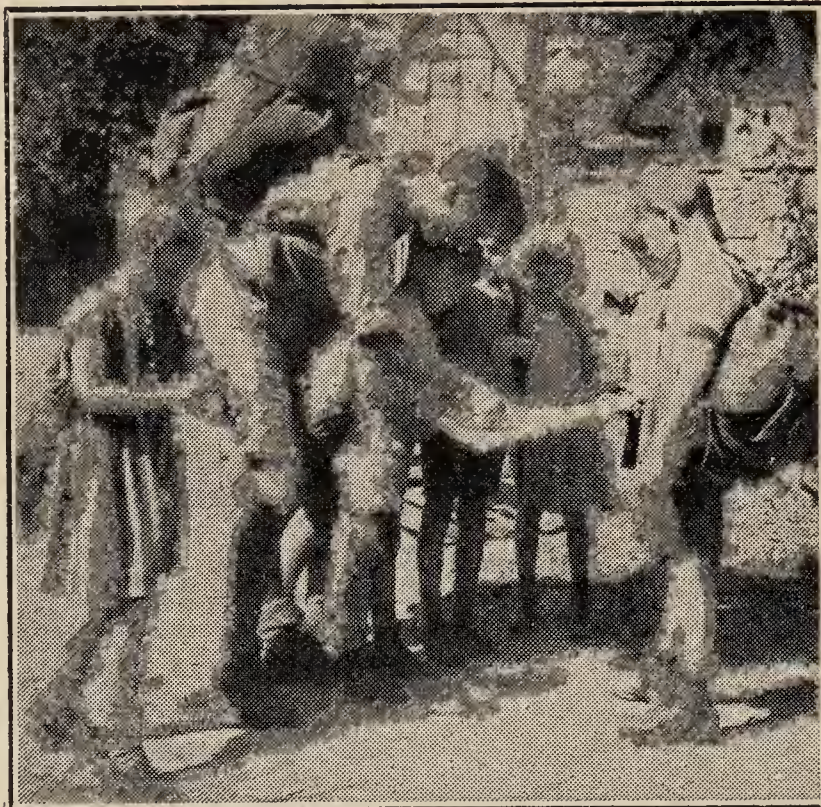
to misunderstandings. We just are not 'governed'; we merely live life in common without any sort of superior governing body, a school without a principal. 'Rights' we have

never quarrelled over; never been interested in 'equality of rights'. The focal point of our society is simply *responsibility*, the responsibility of each to himself and to the whole: and the whole atmosphere and organization of the place are aimed at fostering a strong sense of responsibility in the children at as early an age as possible, and in trusting the still helpless and dependent children to the charge of their older comrades.

We aim also at develop-

ing and cherishing personality, and so to manage that an inner aristocracy, outwardly unrecognizable, shall exert a strong influence on the life of the whole community as well as on that of the individual.

Every fourteen days the *Schulgemeinde* (school parliament) meets in full session of adults and children above a given age, under the leadership of one of the bigger boys or girls, and the feeling of the whole community is expressed on problems, both large and small, in the life of the school. When it is a question of voting, an eight-year-old child can use his vote with as much freedom as a fifty-year-old man. This arrangement symbolizes our realization that all members, irrespective of age, have the same degree of duty towards and responsibility for the community—though of course the degree of duty and responsibility of any individual is commensurate with his age and experience. This idea of responsibility underlies all departments and aspects of our life, even the most everyday matters. Nowhere, either in play or work, is there superintendence; discipline in work is a question for the children themselves, and no teacher has anything to do with it. Our discipline can be counted upon be-



What road shall we take? [Odenwaldschule, Germany]

cause it has been developed among the children within themselves, instead of imposed upon them as respect for external authority.

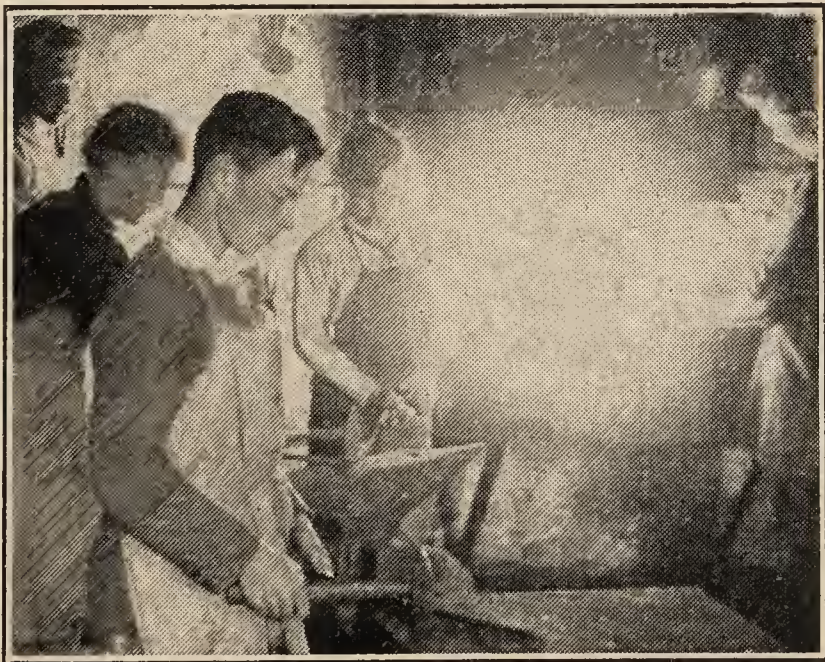
It is true that a programme of an education founded on Goethe's principles cannot be carried out in an orthodox school; with us there is no curriculum as applied to the whole school or to the individual scholar; there is also no division into classes. The work of the teaching staff is to see that children of all ages and capabilities have plenty of scope for occupation in all departments of education, practical as well as theoretical, artistic, social; in short, have everything necessary to the life of a child or young person. The children have free choice of occupation; only in the youngest grades is this choice in any way limited; and we find all the children at all times willing to be guided and advised by us adults, with whom their relations are entirely friendly and with whom they are in constant contact. We consider that one of the most important things is that the children shall express their wishes and be able to pursue their occupations unhampered. We have never experienced any lengthy misuse of freedom of choice; the children throw themselves into their work with real and deep interest, and take pleasure in it. Usually a child works at only two kinds of task at a time, seldom at three or more, sometimes only at one kind; and for at least one month at a time. Occasionally the same interests will claim them for several months on end. The children who in any one subject chance to be at the same stage, naturally form into groups, and thus build up truly homogeneous little societies that have been known to endure for years without a change of members. As in this case there seemed to be the danger of a group becoming too stable and therefore approaching the character of a school class, we adults held regular conferences with the most advanced scholars in which we dis-

cussed the Dalton Plan in detail—much helped by a visit from Helen Parkhurst. The result of these talks was an all-round loosening of the groups (a few broke up completely) which fostered and emphasized independent and individual work. It is hardly necessary to say that the principles of the activity school are carried out in all their practical applications.

We have no classrooms in the usual meaning of the term. Each department of work has its own room which approximates more to workshop, laboratory or library. Each child therefore goes, as necessity arises, to that room or laboratory where he can find the books, collections of illustrative material, apparatus and other means of learning, that he requires at the moment. One child is responsible for the orderly arrangement of all material in each room. During the last few years of school each pupil bears in mind those requirements of the official school world that are relative to the type of education he has chosen for himself, and submits his school-leaving papers to the corresponding authorities. Though our children have done very well in these external examinations, we have now decided to take the suggestion of the Hessian Minister for Public Instruction to hold our own school-leaving examination in the future.

To show that this idealistic way of life is yet practical, I may in conclusion be allowed to quote the words of Dr. Becker, Minister of Public Instruction for Prussia (1921-29). He said: 'The characteristic difference between

old and new education is, that we do not form and mould youth after a pattern, however high and noble, but that we allow the individual to grow, ourselves being merely fingerposts on the way along which, on his own responsibility and by his own act, he is travelling towards those high ideals or that high scholarship that we have been able to set before him. The older generation may shake its



In the Smithy

[*Odenwaldschule, Germany*]

head and point to the motto *Wahrheit und Dichtung*, but how shall we in this day and generation take courage to fill young heads with a certain set quantity of learning that perhaps will prove not their making but their undoing? . . . In the last analysis the important thing is the freeing of that creative power that somewhere is imprisoned in everyone. Our goal is action, not learning; we believe in the power of personality, not in the power of knowledge. Person-

ality will be the more decisive the more mechanized and differentiated our life becomes, and the more numerous our community.'

Hundreds of young people came back to the Odenwaldschule in the beginning of October of this year for the celebration of our twentieth anniversary. There was no public festivity, no abandonment to merry-making: a deep and conscious happiness informed us all.

Practical Work in a Rural School

W. G. CRAVEN

Headmaster, Burneston Rural School, Bedale, Yorkshire

PROBABLY the most important question a teacher has to face is the arrangement of a curriculum suitable to the needs and surroundings of his pupils. Nowhere is this more apparent than in a country school. Our children, brought up in villages in the middle of the Plain of York, four miles from the nearest railway station and small market town, have in some respects a very limited outlook, and their lack of experience renders much of the usual work done in town schools practically useless. But these same children have various valuable experiences of other kinds; they are accustomed to practical work from a very early age; their help with poultry, cattle and sheep, and in hay-making and harvesting, is very real indeed. They are in the main well fed and physically active. To these children the more practical side of school life has the greatest appeal.

The Rural Science and Practical Gardening courses form a very important part of our work. Our garden, just over a quarter of an acre in extent, provides nine dual plots, a model plot, an experimental plot, seed beds, flower borders, a rockery, and a garden frame. Every boy joins this class at a convenient time near his eleventh birthday. In his first year and, where ability is poor, in his second, he works with an older boy, and in his second and third years he has charge of a plot. Third-year boys work the model plot,

look after the frame, carry out experiments with the necessary observations and readings, make records, and graph results, and together with the older girls, are responsible for flower culture. On paying their share of the cost of seeds and manure, boys who wish to do so are allowed to take their produce home.

Market prices at time of lifting are ascertained and records of quantities and values are kept; from these balance sheets for each plot are made out at the end of the season.

Much of the experimental work during the past three years has been based on excellent lectures heard over the school wireless set. These experiments have dealt with the influence of slope on temperature of soil, advantages of hoeing, action of artificial manures on grasses and clovers, depth of sowing and spacing of crops.

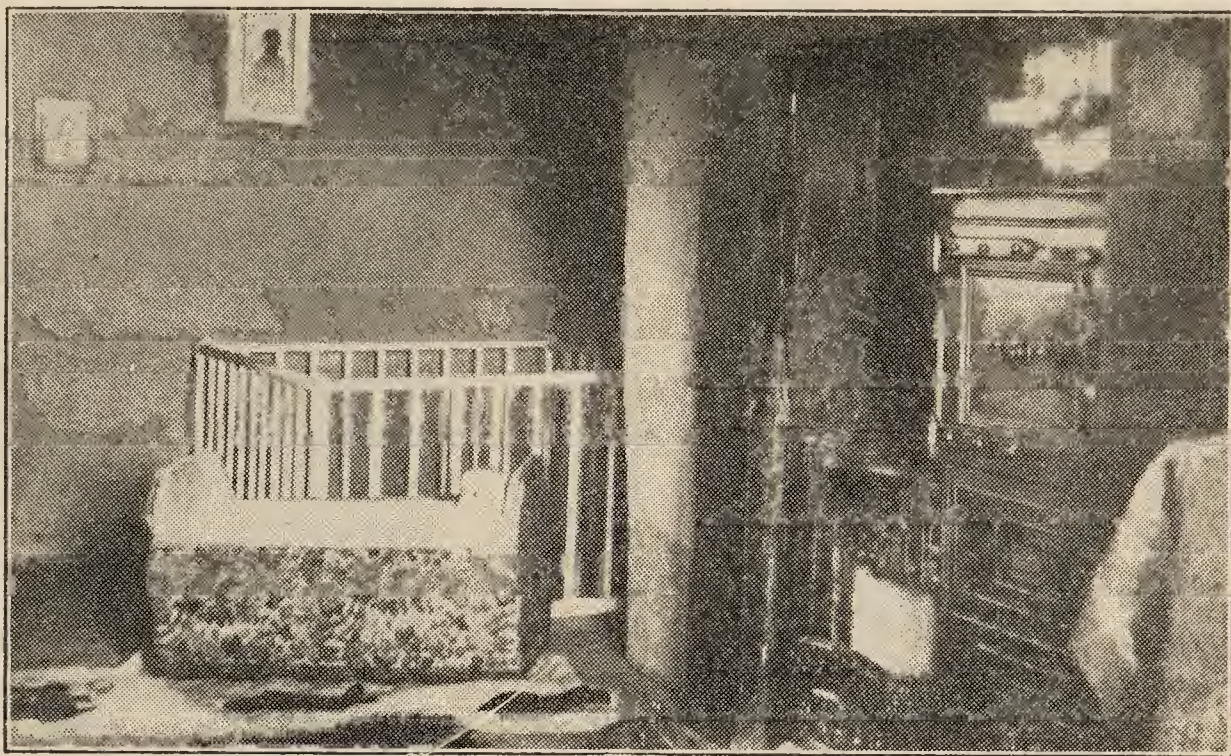
A small woodwork shop forms a very valuable adjunct to the gardening course. Staffing and time will not allow any extensive scheme to be followed, but boys work very effectively and happily, two or three at a time with only occasional supervision. They make labels, nameplates, tool cleaners, garden gates, rails and small hand-lights. The necessity for looking out suitable plans from woodwork books, making sketches and working to them, gives much useful training.

As much of the labouring work in this dis-

trict is done by the acre, it is most desirable that both farmers and labourers should be able to measure the land they are working on. Land measuring forms quite the best kind of practical arithmetic which we can undertake. About an hour a week, out-of-doors when weather and the state of crops will allow, is taken for this work. We first have a series of lessons on the use of Gunter's Chain, ascertaining distances from school to church, school to post office, school to garden and so on. Square and rectangular areas are next measured. These involve the making of plans of school and playground, of the church, of the village square, and of various rectangular portions of fields. After some lessons on triangulation and the field book, we proceed to measure several four-sided fields. Plans are made to suitable scales, areas are worked out, and on these plans many very valuable practical exercises are based. These include calculation of cost of fencing, value of crops, cost of cultivation and of harvesting. Five and six-sided fields are next measured, and so, gradually, ability to measure any piece of land is gained. Frequently, older boys are sent to measure a field, and on their return they make plans and work out results. The more clever boys have been able to make good use of the plane-table, and have made quite passable attempts at a district survey.

Several years ago a room in an adjacent cottage was fitted up by the managers with a minimum of appliances for use as a kitchen for practical work. A simple scheme of lessons in housework was carried out in order to train the girls to be more efficient on entering domestic service. Year by year the original idea has been expanded, and it is the present aim to give such instruction in household subjects as will be of benefit to the girls, whatever their future calling.

The classes are held each Friday from 9.45 a.m. till 12. The kitchen is a typical country cottage with no sink and no tap, but there is a sink at the door and the village pump is handy. Village girls are not accustomed to



Home-made Furniture in typical Cottage Room [Burneston Rural School, Bedale, Yorkshire]

modern conveniences, and no one grumbles at a little extra work. The old-fashioned oven draws best with wood as fuel, so the girls take care that a plentiful supply is available on baking days. By the efforts of girls, parents and teachers, many additional appliances have been secured, and, though everything is still of the simplest, it is possible to carry out practical work in cookery, baby care, housecraft, hygiene, sick-nursing, and the keeping of accounts. Many dinners are partaken of in the kitchen after the girls have themselves purchased the materials, cooked and served the dishes, and set the table. The cost of the dinner is worked out and one of the girls, later on, collects the money. Practically everything made in the class is sold to the girls at cost price, but jam, jelly, chutney and bottled fruit are on sale at the school exhibition of work.

A natural-sized baby doll forms the subject of talks on baby care. Special stress is laid on this branch of the work, as country mothers have few opportunities of learning simple facts about baby care, and many of the girls marry while very young. Model patterns of baby garments are available for the use of the girls, who have made a set of long and of short

clothes for use in the lessons, in addition to a banana-crate cot complete with bedclothes and eiderdown. The patterns of garments are lent to any mother who wishes to use them. In their spare time the girls have made a very good clip rug, and attractively embroidered linen curtains, while scarcely a girl leaves the school without making some useful parting gift to the class.

The neat appearance of the girls, their well-kept hair and finger nails, testify to their training in hygiene. That the parents appreciate the course is shown by the fact that many girls stay on at school long after the ordinary leaving age—two girls who left recently were well over fifteen.

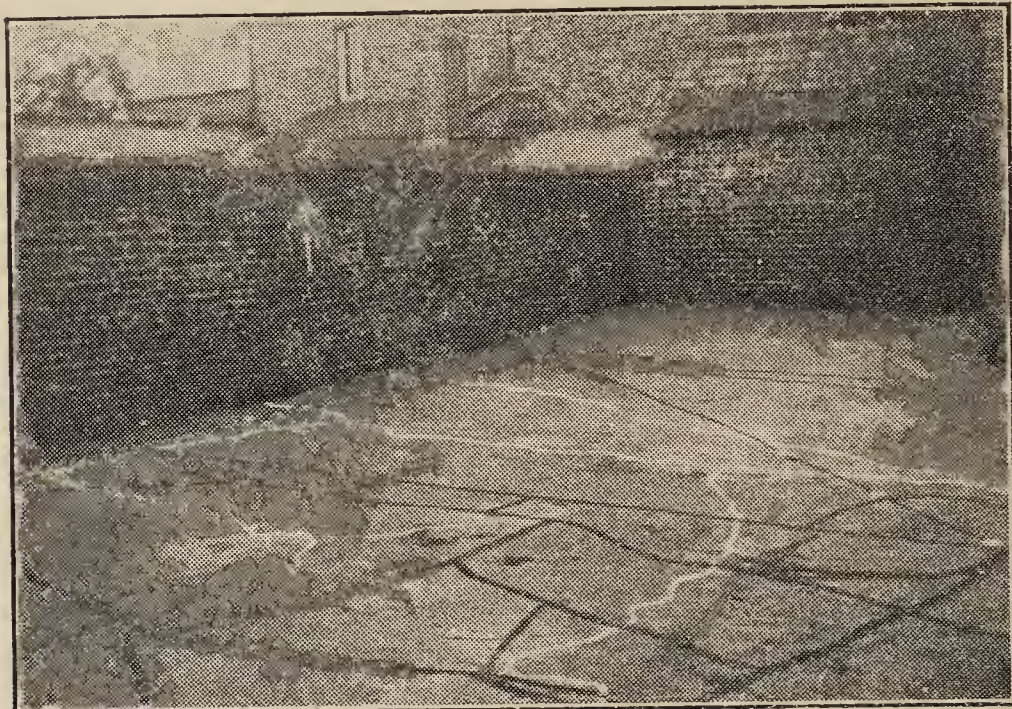
As the lessons are taken by the ordinary certificated class teacher (a master's wife) it is easy to link up the various subjects, and in this way English, needlework, drawing, hygiene, gardening and arithmetic are brought into direct relation with the work of the home.

For the last eight years an annual school journey has been the source of much interest and good work. These journeys have been undertaken in close connection with the history and geography lessons. Thus, a visit to York formed an excellent background for our lessons on the Stuart Period, a day spent at Fountains Abbey and Knaresborough made the lessons on the Tudor Period much more realistic, and a journey to Whitby added interest to our study of Captain Cook's Voyages, besides proving exceedingly useful geographically.

For about three weeks beforehand and for a fortnight afterwards all history, geography, English and drawing lessons are devoted to the making of individual school journey books. Each child draws a map of the route. A series of lessons is given on the special features to be noted; thus a short history of York, and lessons on the Minster, the Guildhall, the City walls, and St. Mary's Abbey prepared the way for the York visit. Careful essays are written on these lessons, while short notes taken during the journey form the basis of more essays and sketches to be placed in the books subsequently. Designs for the covers give scope for originality, and the books are exhibited with

great pride on Parents' Day, and later on are taken home.

Most of these journeys are made by omnibus, and the expense (about eight shillings per child) is principally derived from the proceeds of the annual school concert. The time-table for the day is very carefully planned, and full use is



A Playground Map of the District [Burneston Rural School, Bedale, Yorkshire]

made of local guides so that every moment is well and fully occupied. A hot dinner and substantial tea are always provided.

It was found that the children in the middle section of the school frequently had very vague ideas of the direction of surrounding villages and local market towns. To remedy this, a map is painted on the floor of the playground. It shows roads, rivers, railways and positions of villages and towns within a radius of ten miles of the school. The roads are painted red, the railways black with white circles for stations, and aluminium paint is used for rivers and streams. The scale used is one yard to one mile, and the map is orientated. By running about over this map children are taught in a very interesting and effective manner the position of surrounding villages and market towns with respect to home and school, together with distances; direction of rivers and streams and position of water-parting; difference between distances from one place to another by road, rail and aeroplane; shortest routes and places of change in railway journeys. After a series of lessons the map is copied on the blackboard, and children then learn that the top of a map is

the north, and that an alteration in scale has been necessary. By drawing the map on paper, they learn the necessity for further reduction in scale. Later, as a result of this introduction to map-study, a map of a wider district is more readily understood.

The natural shyness of country children, together with the rough speech heard in the home, makes it difficult to get the children to talk well and clearly. A graded series of dramatic pieces has greatly helped to overcome this difficulty. After the dramatization of nursery stories and fairy tales in the infants' class, the children work through several pieces from *Alice in Wonderland* and *Through the Looking-Glass*. We begin with the conversation between Alice and the Caterpillar, all the boys learning the part of the Caterpillar, and all the girls the part of Alice. In the Mock Turtle's Story the class is

divided into three parts to correspond to the speaking characters. Alice's encounter with the Duchess, the Trial Scene, Alice's adventures with Tweedledum and Tweedledee, and the story of the Walrus and the Carpenter successively call for more actors and give greater scope for originality. Sketches and plays are always prepared for the annual school concert, and the older children are able to act portions of Shakespeare's plays with considerable understanding and success.

A Parents' Day and exhibition of work, the annual school concert, interesting wireless lessons on history, geography, music and rural science, country dancing to the accompaniment of an excellent gramophone, school sports and games, all add their quota to the real education of these country children, and give them, we hope, a love for the life which most of them are likely to live.

ERRATA

The address of the Nursery School Association of Great Britain in London is 32 Bloomsbury Street, not Square, as given on p. 133 of the November *New Era*.



Owing to misreading of handwriting, a word in the following sentence in a review published in the October issue of the *New Era* of Mr. R. M. Williamson's book *Decibank and Multable*, was given incorrectly: ' . . . the inclusion of decimal fractions enables this often troublesome part of the subject to be masked at the same time and with as little difficulty . . . ' The word 'masked' should be 'mastered'. The Decibank and Multable apparatus has now been approved and scheduled by the Kent Education Committee.



An error was made in the heading of Miss May Pardee Youtz's article in the October issue of the *New Era*, 'Other Methods of Parent Education'. The Iowa Child Welfare Research Station is at the State University of Iowa, Iowa City, and is not attached to the University of Washington, Seattle.

THE JANUARY ISSUE

Professor F. Clarke (McGill University)

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH
—DISINTEGRATION OR MUTUAL
UNDERSTANDING ?

AIMS AND METHODS IN CHILD
DEVELOPMENT

OUR EXAMINATION SYSTEM

THE DOMINANT MOTHER

HOW THE SCHOOL CAN HELP
THE HOME

A COUNCIL SCHOOL PROJECT

First Steps to Freedom : Games in the Silent Reading Hour—II

JAMES A. MASTERTON

Headmaster of Foulford School (Elementary), Cowdenbeath, Fife; Author of 'For Silent Reading', 'Primary Silent Reading', 'More Silent Reading,' etc.

IN the November issue of the *New Era* I gave a few instances of the way in which games may be utilized in older classes to encourage reading. Let us now turn our attention to the younger children.

Through various games, sometimes even noisy activities, tiny tots of five years may learn to run, walk, skip, hop, jump, tramp, the medium of instruction being the flash card, the proof of comprehension the carrying out of the action. Through the game of matching they learn to place name-cards on objects, and in a trice, before they have been three months in school, they can carry out, with ease, instructions such as these : 'Jean, dress the doll.' 'May, put the doll in the pram.' 'Betty, push the pram to the door.' Lessons are delightful. Are they not just 'playing at houses' ?

This holds good of all pupils under seven years of age. When a difficulty arises, the immense advantages of the play way are appreciated. A word, or it may be a phrase, is troublesome : it is printed on a card, is 'shuffled' in a pack of cards, and has to be unearthed.

Again, shops and shopkeepers are a real puzzle to the six-year-old whose parents purchase everything in the local branch of the stores—the Co-operative Society. Here group games help. The boys, say, form one group, the shopkeepers ; the girls, another, the buyers. To each is distributed a card on which is printed the name of an article of common use, or the name of the shopkeeper supplying it. There may be twenty different articles, but probably only half a dozen shopkeepers, so the shopkeeper cards have to be multiplied to suit the class requirements. 'Who sells' is a stock card. How easy it is for the teacher to add from her duplicate list, fish, mutton, rice, tea or sugar, pails or pots or pans ! On the appearance of the teacher's card, the buyer who holds the corresponding card hurries to the floor to join or to

be joined by the shopkeeper. The scramble to be first arouses and maintains interest. Great is the excitement when a very keen shopkeeper, say a grocer, collects in his shop the buyer of tea, sugar, rice and salt, while other 'grocers', less alert than he, find themselves with empty shops. Thus words and their meanings are acquired and comprehension tested.

With the seven to nine-year-old group, unlimited are the opportunities which games offer. One has but to remember the main aims of the teacher : To train pupils to think clearly and quickly ; to enlarge vocabulary ; to develop time sense ; to train in use of the right word. On the initiative and resource of the teacher much depends. The more the spirit of freedom permeates her work, the better the results.

Jig-saw puzzles are valuable. An example will explain itself. Each child is provided with a hectographed sheet. 'In each of these exercises there are ten words, but five of the words mean the opposite of the other five. Write these down in pairs, putting opposites together—bad, good.' A time limit is set, and the game is to see which pupil or group will have the highest score.

This game always makes for enthusiasm, and for speedy work. After the lesson is over and scores have been taken, the pupils are asked to try to make up one or two similar sets to puzzle their neighbours. How do such variations appeal to the pupils ? According to the teachers, it makes them 'keen as mustard'.

Games, too, lend themselves well for exercises in selectivity, a training in which is essential for clear thinking. The instruction in such a game is : 'Pick out the *two* words that tell what the person, place or thing always has', and then follows a series, of which this is one : Cat—fur, kittens, beauty, paws, mouse. Great is the glee when a child who has not been thinking informs the class that a cat must always have kittens and a mouse !

Questions from Parents and Teachers

Parents and teachers are sometimes faced with situations with which they feel they cannot adequately deal. You are invited to send such 'posers' to us, and when necessary we shall seek the advice of men and women whose work is the study of young children and adolescents. We ask that you send 1s. to cover cost of clerical work involved. Questions sent in by the middle of one month will be answered, if possible, by the beginning of the month following, and those of general interest will be published in the "New Era".

My boy shows no interest in good literature but reads all the twopenny volumes and cheap weeklies. Sexton Blake, Dick Turpin and other such heroes claim him entirely. Why is this, and how can I lead him to love better books ?

I really do not think the father of the boy who reads penny dreadfuls need be at all worried. He should rather be delighted that his boy desires to read. The literature—let us forget its quality for the moment—is taking the boy's mind from ordinary things, teaching him to use his imagination, making him visualize another world. Youth desires vigorous action, unlimited space, and the 'blood and thunder' literature appeals to the boy who loves adventure for its own sake. Let us honestly face the question. Do we not rather consider it from the standpoint of quality rather than matter—Sexton Blake in place of Sherlock Holmes? What is attractive in Sexton Blake and Deadwood Dick is fascinating also in Sherlock Holmes and *Treasure Island*. The motive is the same whether the boy reads one or the other.

G. K. Chesterton, in his 'Defence of penny dreadfuls', says: 'The theory that the tone of the mass of boys' novelettes is criminal and degrading . . . is rubbish. This wild life is contemplated with pleasure by the young, not because it is like their own life, but because it is different from it.' There is the crux of the whole thing. The great need of the parent is to recognize this desire and not endeavour to divert it. Rather let the father direct his son's attention to Sherlock Holmes where the boy will see the cleverness of the thing with the analysis of reason; or to *Treasure Island*, *Westward Ho!* and the like. For the boy who reads, there is the magic world of books awaiting and taste is merely a matter of direction. Let the penny dreadful be the entrance step to the wonderful storehouse of romance which we call English Literature.

MIZPAH GILBERT

(*Librarian and Curator, Brentford and Chiswick Public Libraries and Museums, London*)

Should young children have only large toys in order to exercise the larger muscles ?

Children often enjoy tiny replicas of adult things and seem to take particular delight in the very diminutiveness of these toys. Often they will single out their small toys to play with in preference to their larger ones. The parents' study group which discussed this question, felt that, with the present limited knowledge of the young child's motivations, we are not warranted in interfering with his own interests and preferences; we can only direct his attention to those activities which we think more desirable.

What is the value of mechanical toys ?

While it is true that these toys develop a certain manual dexterity in starting motion, this same benefit may be acquired in more creative activities. Mechanical toys are too limited in their scope, for they are planned to do only one thing and are not malleable to the child's play purposes. These toys, too, are likely to be easily destroyed by the child's natural desire to investigate—to 'see what makes them go'. This does not mean, however, that mechanical toys must be completely excluded from the playroom, for sometimes a child, for reasons of his own, derives great satisfaction from such a toy. Also, such toys as electric engines and cars and railroad sets offer opportunity for fine constructive play for children old enough to manipulate them.

What should be done with an inappropriate or dangerous gift toy such as a bow and arrow ?

Toys of this kind, properly used, may have value in developing certain skills. Children can be made to realize that until such time as they can acquire sufficient skill and judgment, such toys may be used only under adult supervision. They can also be put aside until the child may more profitably enjoy them. A gift toy which seems definitely harmful, however, should simply be removed with as little stress as possible, or with an explanation of its undesirability, if this seems necessary.

Do toy soldiers stimulate a militaristic spirit ?

Toy soldiers are certainly very satisfying to many children whose interest is primarily in their orderly arrangement and manipulation. The war game as played by children is really a game to them, and carries none of the elements of hatred and cruelty associated with killing. There are available many fine toy figures besides those of soldiers—knights and courtiers of different countries and historic periods—and these can be added to the soldier collection to stimulate both historic and æsthetic interest.

A child of two and a half years shows no interest in his toys, no ability to concentrate on what he is doing. They interest him only when the mother manipulates them. He has a velocipede and a kiddie-kar. How can his imagination be stimulated ?

The velocipede is obviously too difficult to manipulate, but the child might be left to his own devices; with adequate play material and less adult attention he might find outlets for himself. Some children, however, need the stimulation of other children who have more imagination. In a play group, therefore—

either nursery school or a less formal type—the child might learn much by observing the play of other children of his own age. It is possible, too, that this mother expects too much of the child. Two and a half is very early to expect a long span of interest or continued activity.

(Child Study Association of America, 54 West 74th Street, New York City)

My little girl of three and a half years will not play with other children. She is very willing for them to have her toys, but will not play with them. She tries to attract attention by behaving in an affected way. Every time I meet a friend in the street she screams all the time we talk. Otherwise she is a good-tempered and obedient child.

In the first place we need to remember that a child of three and a half is not likely to want to play with other children. The younger the child the more individualistic she is likely to be. This side of development cannot be forced, but all the same, the beginning

of social relationships are much more easily and soundly developed when a child can be in constant contact with other children, especially of her own age. I should strongly advise this child being sent to a nursery school if a suitable one is available. It looks as if she is too much the centre of the picture at home and is expecting too much attention from her mother. This would account for her trying behaviour in the street. Whether she goes to a nursery school or not she should be made to realize—kindly, but firmly—that she cannot always have her own way. Do not shield her from any consequences of anti-social behaviour. She will have to learn from experience that being tiresome does not pay. Small deprivations are generally the best means to employ. For instance, she could be told that if she screams again when you talk to a friend in the street she will not be able to go out with you the next day. If this is rigidly enforced on one or two occasions it is quite likely that she will be cured.

E. MILDRED NEVILL
(Psychologist, Frensham Heights School; Lecturer in Psychology, Clapham Training College, London)

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 200

THE CHILD'S CONCEPTION OF CAUSALITY

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF EARLY CHILDHOOD UP TO THE SIXTH YEAR OF AGE

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION

THE GOLDEN KEY; or, EDUCATING FOR LIFE

HOW YOU WORK

THE RUNAWAY SARDINE—UNDER THE PIG-NUT TREE—HAHTIBEE
THE ELEPHANT—MORE TO AND AGAIN—FOLK TALES OF A
SAVAGE—LUCIEN GOES A-VOYAGING

Books Received

BOOKS TO READ. *A classified and annotated catalogue, being a guide for young readers. In three parts : authors and titles of books ; books arranged by subjects (with an author list of fiction) ; alphabetical index to subjects. Compiled by a Committee representing the Library Association, the National Association of Boys' Clubs, the National Council of Girls' Clubs, and the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. Published (with the assistance of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust) by the Library Association, 26-27 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1. 10s. 6d. [This book is mentioned in the article entitled CHILDREN'S READING, page 184.]*

PHYSICAL TRAINING, GAMES AND ATHLETICS IN SCHOOLS. *A textbook for training college students. New edition, revised and enlarged. By M. B. Davies. Geo. Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London. 6s.*

NUMBER : *The Language of Science. By Tobias Dantzig, Ph.D. Illustrated. An admirable exposition of the fundamental philosophical ideas which have revolutionized mathematical thought during the past twenty years. Geo. Allen & Unwin, London. 10s.*

PSYCHOPATHOLOGY : *A Survey of modern approaches.* By J. Ernest Nicole, L.M.S.S.A., D.P.M.R.C.P. & S., Senior Assistant Medical Officer, Lancashire County Mental Hospital, Winwick ; Hon. Sec. Psychopathology Sub-Committee, Royal Medico-Psychological Assn. etc. With a Foreword by W. H. B. Stoddart, M.D., B.S., F.R.C.P. Lond. Ballière, Tindall & Cox, London. 10s. 6d.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIFTH CONFERENCE OF THE ALL INDIA FEDERATION OF TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS, MADRAS. *The South Indian Teacher, Madras.*

TEN YEARS OF WORLD CO-OPERATION (*League of Nations*). Foreword by Sir Eric Drummond. Secretariat of the League of Nations, Geneva.

REPORT BY THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE ON INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION (*League of Nations*). Official number : A.27. Secretariat of the League of Nations, Geneva.

CHOICE AND FREEDOM. *A Challenge to the young to take stock of their position in the modern world and their attitude to some of its problems.* Central Education Committee of the Society of Friends, Friends' Book Centre, Euston Road, London, N.W.1. Paper board, 1s. ; paper, 6d.

A CHALLENGE TO NEURASTHENIA. *Second Impression. An account by one of his patients of the methods by which Dr. Barnes of Whitwell, Hertfordshire, effected cures of neurasthenia.* By Doris Mary Armitage. Williams & Norgate, Ltd., London. Cloth, 2s. 6d. ; paper 1s.

THE GIRL VOTER. *Talks on her inheritance, her responsibilities, and her opportunities.* By E. M. White, F.R.Hist.S. With a Foreword by Mrs. Leah Manning, J.P., President of the National Union of Teachers, England. Herbert Russell, 35 & 36 Temple Chambers, London, E.C.4. 2s.

PROBLEMS OF LIFE AND EXISTENCE. *Economics and Relative subjects, with suggested solutions and amendments in various conditions in life.* By 'Pensuelo'. Arthur H. Stockwell, Ltd., 29 Ludgate Hill, London, E.C.4. 2s. 6d.

COMMUNITY LIFE STUDIES. *For Kindergarten, and Grades One, Two and Three. A tentative course of study, with exhaustive bibliographies, including several made by children.* Seattle Public Schools, Seattle, Wash., U.S.A.

DER ALTEN WOHNUNG : *Ein Neues Gesicht. Wie macht man's ? Was kostet's ?* By Otto Schmidt. *Neue Hauswirtschaftsbücher.* One hundred illustrations and four plans of houses. K. Thienemanns-Verlag, Stuttgart, Germany. RM.4.80.

THE CHRONICLER OF EUROPEAN CHIVALRY (FROISSART). *Mediæval Pageantry.* By G. G. Coulton, M.A., D.Litt. 'Studio' Special Winter Number. Magnificent colour plates. The Studio Ltd., 44 Leicester Square, London, W.C.2. Cloth, 10s. 6d. ; wrapper, 7s. 6d.

THE A B C OF MUSIC, Vols. I and II. By T. Campbell Young, 3s. 6d. A YORKSHIRE SYMPHONY, scored for voices and household utensils (with piano). By Dorothy Pennyman. Complete with conductor's score, 4s. 1d. A CHILD'S DAY. Fourteen short pianoforte pieces for beginners. By Dora Price and Lilian Leavey. The Oxford University Press, London, and the O.U.P., Bartels Hof, Markt 8, Leipzig, C.1, Germany.

DRYAD HANDICRAFTS MATERIALS, 1930-31. RAFFIA WORK FOR INFANTS AND JUNIORS By Elsie Mochrie, 2s. 6d. COLOURED PAPER WORK. By U. R. Fletcher and I. P. Roseaman, 2s. The Dryad Press, 42 St. Nicholas Street, Leicester, England.

BINDING CRAFTS FOR THE JUNIOR SCHOOL. By F. Davenport. Pitman & Sons, Ltd., London. 4s.

THE LUCID DRAWING BOOKS, 1, 2, 3, and 4. By F. S. Haywood. Cassell & Co., Ltd., London.

MORE NURSERY RHYMES, and A THIRD BOOK OF NURSERY RHYMES. *Set to Music.* By J. Maynard Grover. Oxford University Press, London, and O.U.P., Bartels Hof, Markt 8, Leipzig, C.1, Germany. 3s. 6d. each.

International Notes

Dr. W. Carson Ryan Jr., Member of the International Council of the New Education Fellowship, and Chairman of the International Examinations Inquiry set up by the Fellowship, has been appointed Director of Education in Indian Service by the Department of the Interior of the United States.

Dr. Carleton Washburne, Superintendent of Winnetka Public Schools, Illinois, and his family, with Miss Florence Brett, Principal of the Greeley School, are leaving San Francisco for Japan, via Hawaii, at the end of December, on the first stage of a world tour. As well as Japan, they will visit China, India, Iraq, Syria, Turkey, Russia, Poland, Germany, Vienna, Italy, Switzerland, France, Belgium and England, taking nine months in all.

Miss Gertrude Hartman, who went on leave of absence from the Editorship of *Progressive Education* last year, has resigned, and her place has been taken by Miss Ann Shumaker, who was co-author with Dr. Harold Rugg of *The Child-Centered School*, and who is, besides, the author of numerous books for children.

Miss Clare Soper, Secretary at Headquarters of the New Education Fellowship, is prolonging her stay in America until the New Year in order to lecture during December in California for the State Teachers' Association.

The President of the Indian Section of the New Education Fellowship, Professor A. R. Wadia (Head of the Department of Philosophy at Mysore University) has been appointed Director of Education at Mysore University, and will in future live in Bangalore.

Bulgaria

The activities of the Bulgarian Section of the New Education Fellowship during the year 1929-30 have been as follows : (1) There have been at least twenty meetings. (2) The section has been recognized and its constitution definitely approved by the Ministry of the Interior. (3) A comprehensive programme of activities for the future has been drawn up. (4) An inquiry has been begun into the actual position of new education in Bulgaria, and a number of exceedingly interesting accounts are being received. (5) The Second Annual Conference was held at Easter of this year, and was attended by several school inspectors and officials of the Ministry of Public Education ; the cordiality and unanimity of aim were most marked. (6) Approaches, which were favourably received, were made to the Education Authorities in Sofia with a view to organizing a library and a public

lecture hall for children. (7) The section has begun the reorganization of the Bulgarian Parents' and Teachers' Union, and is exceedingly hopeful of success.

Scotland

The annual general meeting of the Scottish Section of the New Education Fellowship was held in Glasgow on 25th October. Mr. C. M. Rice, Renfrew, was elected President in place of Dr. Alexander Morgan, and Mr. F. J. Nicholson, who has succeeded Mr. Donald McKay as Secretary of the Dunfermline Group, took Mr. McKay's place on the Council. It is hoped that Scotland will be able to send a large number of members and interested friends to the Empire Conference of the Fellowship planned to be held in London in 1931. An illuminating account of his experimental work as the originator of the Jena Plan of education was given by Dr. Peter Petersen, Director of the Institute of the Science of Education, University of Jena, Germany. The Jena Plan is now to be in force in all the schools of the province of Frankfort-Oder, and 4,000 teachers will be under Dr. Petersen's direction. Dr. Petersen said that he had been much impressed by the experimental schools he had seen in Scotland. Plans of the new Mile End Nursery School, Glasgow, were inspected with much interest by the meeting.

During the first week of October the Odenwaldschule, Heppenheim, Germany, celebrated twenty years of progress and endeavour. Founded in 1910, and then consisting of only one house, it stood for revolution in German education. Co-education, individual time-tables, and the introduction of crafts as a regular item of the curriculum, are among the main features. The fact that the majority of progressive schools in Germany has accepted these things during the past decade shows the true foresight of Herr Paul Geheeb (the Founder) in introducing them. The school developed steadily during those early difficult years of war and the succeeding period of inflation, and other houses were built. At this period also its international character was established, children of Russian and Polish refugees coming to it. To-day almost one-third of the children are non-German ; Europe, America, and Asia are represented. With self-government comes self-criticism ; thus the dominant notes of the discussions which took place between the former members of the school who returned for the celebrations, and members of the *Schulgemeinde* (school parliament) were : Are we abreast of the times preparing for the changing conditions of the fourth decade of this century ? Are the additions to our activities entirely in keeping with our original ideals ? What should be added further ? Something of the spirit of the Odenwald community is shown by the fact that many former members, who left it

ten or more years ago, remain in vital contact with it, and seek to serve its progress with the fruits of their experience.



The Geneva School of International Studies, under the able directorship of Professor Alfred Zimmermann, concluded its seventh session at the termination of this year's Assembly of the League. The school meets annually, from the beginning of July till the end of the Assembly. The courses are divided into two periods: firstly, a continuous course from the beginning of July till the beginning of September, and secondly, a course of lectures during the Assembly on the work of the League. During the first of these periods at least 120 students were continuously present, representing more than thirty nationalities. The course consisted of lectures and discussions, each week a special subject being selected. The languages used were English and French. In addition to the lectures on the set subjects there were many evening lectures, outside the regular course, on subjects of international importance. The special weekly subjects at this year's session were: Geography and Race; The United States; Asia; Education; History; Sociology; Economics; and Law. The school is a most interesting experiment in international education, and certainly deserves the attention of all those interested in international affairs, education, or both.



The S.N.D.T. College for Women held a vacation course in education, in Poona, India, in October and November under the direction of Mr. B. D. Karve, who, with his father, Professor D. K. Karve, was present at the Elsinore (1929) Conference of the New Education Fellowship. The course was open to all who cared to attend, and besides lectures, a number of demonstration lessons was given.



A new periodical, *Educational Appliances*, has been started by Mr. K. Bulchand, Headmaster of the Nava Vidyalaya High School, Hyderabad-Sind, to popularize the use of the cinematograph and of gramophone records, among other appliances, in school work.



In the Spanish International School at Madrid, under the Association of Plurilingual Education, now entered upon its third year, children from the age of three years up to college age attend six hours of games and classes daily in four languages—Spanish, English, French and German. By this means it is hoped to influence them to think, speak and act internationally. The school, of which Professor Pedro Salinas of the University of Seville is Chairman of the Executive Committee, asks for criticisms and suggestions from educators all over the world.



A Garden Reference Library was begun a year ago in one of the small public gardens of Lisbon, under

the auspices of a private educational society known as the Free University. Under a huge cedar-tree are bookcases containing rather less than 1,000 volumes covering practically every mechanical and literary subject, and anyone may come to them between the hours of 10 a.m. and 6 p.m. During the year 25,000 readers took advantage of the opportunity offered, large numbers of them being office and shop employees, soldiers, sailors, workmen and dockhands. The Free University supplied the books, bookcases and chairs, and the Lisbon City Council the Librarian.



The 1930 Education Amendment Ordinance of South Africa gives the following interesting table showing increase of expenditure on education since 1924-25: Increase in six years on—coloured education, 86 per cent.; native education, 28 per cent.; and European education, 25 per cent.



The National Council for Prevention of War, England, is concentrating on the abolition of the State Grant for Officers Training Corps, as their part in a world co-ordinated campaign against the military training of youth and conscription. During the past year the State Grants for the Cadet Corps and the Church Lads' Brigade have been withdrawn, and it is hoped that, during the coming year, public opinion will be able to secure the withdrawal of the remaining State contribution towards the military training of youth. Those who wish for information, or who wish to co-operate, should communicate with the Directing Secretary, National Council for Prevention of War, 39 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.



Compulsory military training has recently been suspended in both Australia and New Zealand.



A conference on mental welfare is to be held on 11th, 12th and 13th December in the Great Hall of the British Medical Association House, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1. It will be opened by the Minister for Health, and will discuss matters relating to the Mental Treatment Act, the Mental Deficiency Acts, and school reorganization in connexion with retarded and defective children. Information from the Secretary, Central Association for Mental Welfare, 24 Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.



The first number of *The Wideawake Magazine* (5 Johnson's Court, Fleet Street, London, E.C.4; monthly; 2s. 6d. per year) appeared in October. This little illustrated magazine for boys and girls has been founded to tell in easily understood, plain language something about the wonders of science and the beauties of nature; it will describe the most important discoveries, inventions and explorations. There will also be tales and puzzles, and articles on games, stamps and other hobbies.

Book Reviews

The Child's Conception of Causality. By Jean Piaget, Director of the International Bureau of Education and Co-Director of the Institut J. J. Rousseau, Geneva. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co.; New York, Harcourt Brace & Co. 15s.

In this new volume of the International Library of Psychology, Philosophy and Scientific Method, Professor Jean Piaget continues the work he has already developed in *The Language and Thought of the Child*, *Judgment and Reasoning in the Child*, and *The Child's Conception of the World*. His purpose is to discover whether, connected with the conceptions of the world peculiar to the child, there exists also a corresponding conception of material force. That is to say, has the child a physics as well as a cosmology?

Professor Piaget's method is to exhibit to the child a series of simple experiments, and to ask questions. As in his other books, he gives the wording of the questions asked, and of the child's answers to them. He thus makes it possible for other investigators to repeat his experiments in detail, and to compare their results with his own.

Teachers will probably be especially interested in the chapters in which Professor Piaget deals with 'The Problem of Shadows' and 'The Mechanism of Bicycles'. The children's replies in these sections give a great deal of information—never before brought together, the reviewer believes—regarding the concepts which children bring to the study of science. These chapters throw a great deal of illumination on some of the difficulties met with by those who attempt to teach physics to young children.

The volume, like its predecessors, is one which no modern student of children and child mentality can afford to overlook.

The Psychology of Early Childhood up to the Sixth Year of Age. By William Stern. Translated by Anna Barwell. Geo. Allen & Unwin, London. 18s.

The limitations of the scientific method are never more apparent than when the method is applied to the study of young children. A young child provides more facts per hour than we could note per day, and it is difficult to avoid collecting the facts which prove what we want to prove.

That William Stern has collected some useful information is shown by the appearance of this second edition in English, a translation of the sixth German edition. The translation reads well, although a few of the children's remarks seem to have suffered by a too literal translation. When we are using the phrases to show the mental development of the child, this is an important point. Stern's careful records enable him to make incisive criticisms of the views of Montessori and Piaget. Stern subscribes to the view that Montessori's success in teaching the three R's

was due largely to the steering of the instinctive interests of the child into these channels, by removing other playthings from the environment. But he does not agree that the other playthings were just a waste of time.

Piaget is criticized for his generalizations regarding the mental processes of children. Examples of child reasoning are given which show that the ages given by Piaget for the psychic changes he describes are very far out with some children. Stern agrees with Piaget, however, that the mental processes of the child are different from those of the adult.

The Psychology of Education. By D. Kennedy-Fraser, M.A. Methuen & Co., London. 6s. 6d.

There are all too few books on the psychology of education at present, so this second edition will be welcomed and will most certainly meet a need among students and the less experienced teachers. The book covers a number of important issues, but it cannot be said to be anything like exhaustive. Moreover, it seems a pity to use the better-known half of the Binet-Simon individual vocabulary test as a group test in a new form. Also, in spite of the explanation given, a false impression is apt to be created as the result of quoting figures from the testing work of students. More reliable figures showing the change in I.Q. would be welcomed; these are worse than useless.

The Golden Key, or Educating for Life. By Dr. E. Neil McQueen, M.A. Messrs. Argus and Robertson, Ltd., Sydney, N.S.W., and the Australian Book Co., Farringdon Avenue, London, E.C.4. 5s. 6d.

This very readable book is a survey of the aims and work of a large day and boarding school for girls in New South Wales. To the English educationalist the colonial setting and unfamiliar circumstances are attractive; but even more interesting is the detailed account of almost every conceivable aspect and function of the school in the light of the share it contributes in providing a real preparation for life. The author is consistent throughout in his application of the principle that 'if the main object of a school is to enable its students to "get on" in the world, it has no right to claim to be an educational establishment'. This school aims at something much nobler.

Not its least valuable feature, especially to the secondary teacher, is the inclusion of examples of work actually done by the pupils, as well as lists of books used, and details of the syllabus followed in most of the subjects taught. The chapters dealing with Scripture, Contemporary Events, Co-operative Work and The Conversazione, are commended, particularly, to the notice of secondary teachers as containing much matter of more than passing educational interest. In many cases the methods employed,

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and the kinds of work accomplished, are worthy of imitation. The book is well illustrated.

The Runaway Sardine. By Emma L. Brock. 5s. **Under the Pig-nut Tree.** By Berta and Elmer Hader. 3s. 6d. **Hahtibee the Elephant.** By Charles E. Slaughter. 5s. **More To and Again.** By Walter R. Brooks. 6s. **Folk Tales of a Savage.** By Lobagola. 5s. **Lucien Goes a-Voyaging.** By Agnes Carr Vaughan. 6s. All Alfred A. Knopf, Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.

Children's books in these past few years have become increasingly and treacherously attractive. I say treacherously because the gay covers, the excellent print and paper, the entertaining illustrations, tempt the average buyer to overlook the content. And unfortunately the content is often exceeding weak.

Take *The Runaway Sardine*. The author has taken the ancient theme of the Gingerbread Boy, using a sardine as the hero. Now the gingerbread boy story has the advantage of being pure fairy tale. Even a four-year-old recognizes it as such. But the sardine story is muddling. 'Of course', said Carroll, aged nine, 'we know that sardines don't put their tails between their mouths and roll around on dry ground, but maybe little kids might be fooled.' The book is trimmed up with truly delightful sketches of Brittany life. It is to be regretted that the story itself is so thin and artificial.

Under the Pig-nut Tree seems to be another vehicle for charming illustrations. It is a rather pleasant sugar-coating for information about how kingfishers live. An elf in a garden longing for adventure goes for a ride on a grasshopper's back and makes the acquaintance of a kingfisher, who takes him diving. The authors are obvious nature lovers eager to teach small children of four and five the life habits of birds and insects. Mary, seven, listened politely and thought it 'all right', but obviously thin nourishment for one of her years. This book is the first of a series of four, the others to appear later.

Hahtibee the Elephant is a really good elephant story. Mary thought it excellent, but was under the impression when she finished that Indian mahouts could hold converse with elephants, though the rest of the world couldn't. This is the only thing that mars the book as good children's literature. A child of seven has a hard enough time making a clear division for itself between fact and fancy. Isn't it rather unfair of adults to tell their stories so beautifully close to the truth as Mr. Slaughter has done, so that the child trusts it *all* for pure fact, and then step over the line to indulge in a little fancy because it is easier for *them*? Children are not often critical

enough to be resentful of this deception, the more's the pity.

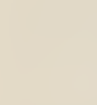
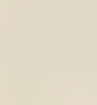
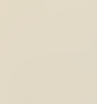
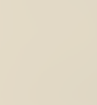
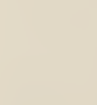
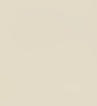
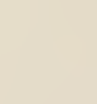
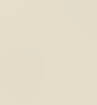
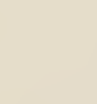
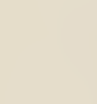
More To and Again is a Dr. Doolittle type of nonsense story, a sequel to *To and Again*. It recounts the adventures of a collection of barnyard animals led by a poetic pig who conceives the idea of organizing a travel company to conduct in person tours for animals. It reads easily and the animals have individuality. Occasionally it plays to the adult gallery and often seems forced. The real artist's touch which makes the Doolittle books endurable for parents to read aloud is lacking. It is not the sort of book with which one would clutter up the library of an intelligent child. Still, it is cleverly illustrated by Kurt Wiese and would do perhaps for passing a dull afternoon away.

Folk Tales of a Savage remind one of Æsop's Fables partly in the way they are told, partly in the moral attached at the end. But they are excellent animal stories, well written, and a real addition to our fund of folk-lore. Moreover, the background of savage life in Africa is picturesquely woven in.

This book and *Lucien Goes a-Voyaging* are the two out of the six really worth buying and keeping on the bookshelf for a re-reading. The story of Lucien is retold from the Greek by a Greek professor at Smith College. She must be a most human sort of professor with a bevy of small nieces and nephews, especially nephews, for she has made an altogether delightful story of the 2000-year-old tale from *Lucien's True History*. The adventures are quite as exciting as those of Gulliver or Æneas or Ulysses, and equally humorous. Carroll has been deaf to repeated parental requests to wash his hands and come to supper for several evenings while adventuring with Lucien, and has finally offered the verdict that it is a 'swell' book.

How You Work. *An Introduction to the Human Body.* By Isabel Wilson, M.D. Gerald Howe, Ltd., Soho Square, London. 3s. 6d.

This little book is intended as a companion volume to Mrs. Amabel Williams-Ellis's *How You Began*, and is written simply and with humour for the six- to nine-year-old. It describes the daily work of the body, and leads to the habit of thinking scientifically about life and health without the young reader being aware that he is forming a habit at all. It begins by telling us how we are made, what it is to be alive, and how we keep alive. Then we see how we do things—move, balance, make noises, taste, feel, think, and so forth. Lastly are a few pages on the body as a whole, and a table of contents for teachers. A most delightfully written and instructive book.



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